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## THE FRENCH-ENGLISH MARGIN IN CANADA

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### ABSTRACT

French-Canadian culture is local and personal; English culture is expansive and often impersonal. The two most cherished elements of the former are the French language and the Catholic religion. These two are inseparable and any other elements of the culture are dependent upon them. French culture in Quebec differs from that in France. Definite effort on the part of the clergy has reinforced the usual tendency of a colony to preserve obsolescent features of the mother culture. It is viewed as a heritage which must not be polluted even by the mother, France. The speech of the French Canadian preserves archaic forms because of isolation from the main body of French people and receives necessary additions to its vocabulary from another language. Bilingualism, generally speaking, is confined to the French Canadian, which means a spread of the English language rather than of French. Contacts between French and English are more often of a secondary character than within either group. There are few activities or institutions in which the participation of both races is identical in either number or kind. Prestige is a matter of personal achievement, but the successful French Canadian is likely to be less French and less devoted to his people. In the church and nationality organizations alone can success be attained without compromise.

The margin between French and English<sup>1</sup> in Canada presents two lines of inquiry; the one has to do with differences of culture, the other with social relationships and organization. The latter furnish the setting within which the former survive or are lost.

French Canada is a "culture-area" in a more real sense than any other part of America north of the Rio Grande. It also constitutes part of a political unit of which it is a minority, but not a dependency. If one attempt to define the French Canadians as a race, he will find no badge of identification. There is no social or political line

<sup>1</sup> In this paper French shall mean French Canadian, and English shall mean English Canadian.



which may not be and has not been crossed between French and English. If one call the French a nationality he is nearer the truth, but there is no fixed territory belonging to them, nor is there any considerable movement for political separation. Nevertheless, the French Canadian is a distinct sort of human being, and is sometimes painfully conscious of it. In the more remote sections of Québec, his mentality is not far from what Redfield has called "folk mentality" in his study of a remote village in Mexico.<sup>2</sup> In the cities and towns he is still unique, but belongs to a larger world.

When the French Canadian speaks of the problem of his people, he refers to the ever-present danger of losing himself in the English-speaking world. When the English person speaks of it, he refers to the tenacity with which the French Canadian resists assimilation. Canada as a whole is somewhat culturally self-conscious, just because of this inner division, as well as because of the pull between the influence of the adjacent United States and that of the more remote, but also more dear, Great Britain. The result is that items of culture are matters of discussion and even of conflict. The French Canadian has an advantage over his English fellow-citizen in this respect, for he knows very well what his culture is. The English Canadian does not know except that in a general way he wants not to be old-country English, United States American, or French Canadian. The presence of an unusual degree of culture consciousness in Canada is a fact; just how the processes of cultural change are affected by it is quite another matter. There are factors other than sentiment which affect the diffusion and mixture of cultures, yet it appears better to us to consider the culture itself in connection with the feelings and sentiments of the people who bear it. Only thus can we understand certain paradoxical situations, such as of the group which feels an antipathy to another culture, but is none the less subtly influenced by it.

#### I. FRENCH-CANADIAN CULTURE

The French-Canadian area includes most of the province of Québec and parts of the neighboring provinces and of the New England states, as well as a few outposts in Western Canada. It expands by

<sup>2</sup> Redfield, *Tepoztlán, A Mexican Village*. Introduction.

migration alone, a migration largely traceable to the extraordinarily high rate of natural increase of the French-Canadian population.<sup>3</sup>

The stronghold of this culture is rural Quebec. The margins where it is threatened are created by its own expansion. The cities of Quebec and New England have attracted large numbers of French who thereby have become employees of non-French firms. The rural migrant who moves into the house left by an English farm family does not suffer much change in his mode of domestic and economic life, but he may find himself under governments and school commissions which are not kind to him. French-Canadian culture is very much wedded to the soil in which it grew up; whenever put into motion, it is jeopardized.

This is the more true since French-Canadian culture is by its nature a personal possession. It is almost never acquired by anyone not born to it. When a French person is anglicized, there is no revenge except that of an occasional mixed marriage in which Catholicism wins. The English culture, on the other hand, penetrates French Canada in the form of books, motion pictures, goods of all sorts, news, and advertising. To the French Canadian, the English culture is a set of commodities and opportunities, things which may eventually make him leave home but some of which reach him whether he goes after them or not. The back country habitant may be touched by things English, but the only way to meet French-Canadian culture is to meet French Canadians. We are, then, dealing with two cultures of which one is local and personal, the other expansive and often impersonal.

This may be further illustrated by the fate of European immigrants to Canada. Rarely is an immigrant assimilated to French culture, even in Montreal with its more than half a million French.

<sup>3</sup> C. H. Young has described the expansion of the French-Canadian world in terms of (1) rural displacement of English-speaking people on a somewhat solid front, extending south into the once English part of the Province of Quebec and now into the New England States and west into Ontario, (2) rural to urban movement, which formerly had its goals in the cities of New England, but now turns to the cities of Quebec and the new industrial towns of Ontario. The French-Canadian population of the United States was 76.8 per cent urban in 1920 and of the total population of Quebec in 1921, 56 per cent was urban. See his *Population Expansion of the French in Canada*, McGill University Thesis, 1928.

The English Protestants make more effort to assimilate Catholic immigrants, to attract them to their schools and their temples than we do to win them for our French parishes, where the brotherhood of faith, the relationships of neighbourhood, the education of children and marriages would attach them definitely to the solid bloc of French Catholicism. As to Russian, Greek and Roman schismatics and heretics of all sorts, is it not remarkable that we organize with such zeal and success for foreign missions, but no one bothers with the thousands of *convertissables* and *assimilables* who surround us, whom we know, whom we employ, whom we enrich with the money that ought to go to our brothers in race and in faith.<sup>4</sup>

The two most cherished elements of French-Canadian culture are the French language and the Catholic religion. The person who has but one of these two attributes in common with French Canadians is in no wise one of them. Any other elements of the culture that may pertain are dependent upon these two bulwarks. Certain arts and crafts, either brought from France or adapted from the Indians, are still practiced in remote districts. Folk lore and peculiar customs are likewise less resistant than the language and the faith. There are a few peculiar holidays, such as the day of St. Jean-Baptiste, and some peculiar customs surrounding others that are common to all Canadians. New Year's Day, and not Christmas, is the day of gift-giving. A priest, possessed of the notion that Christmas should be a strictly religious festival, writes of Santa Claus as a "dirty old grey-beard to whom one imputes, along with the gift of ubiquity, a generosity as great as that of a god."<sup>5</sup> The purpose of his attack on the beneficent saint is, as one might suspect, to combat the growing popularity of the English Christmas among his people. Another distinguishing trait is a set of mourning customs, which have a religious tinge and also enable one to express the nuances of respect due to various deceased members of one's family. Yet these things are but incidental to the backbone elements of French-Canadian culture. These latter themselves are not sufficiently described by the mere naming, for the language of the *Canadien* is not that of France today, nor is his Catholicism that of either France or the rest of North America.

<sup>4</sup> Buchard, "Canada français et les étrangers," ed. L'action française, *Notre avenir politique*, p. 175. The translation of this and other passages quoted has been made by the present author.

<sup>5</sup> Groulx, Lionel, *Dix ans d'Action française*, p. 204.

*Quebec and France.*—Even had Quebec started with a culture which was an exact replica of that of France, one would scarcely have expected the two to have remained identical during so long a separation. As it was, the immigrants to New France were not a cross-section of the French people. The economic base has been very different and the French culture of Quebec has been in danger for a century and a half. Yet both countries speak French and are Catholic.

Not long after the English took Canada, old France underwent a revolution which eventually culminated in the anti-clerical laws of the present century. New France, on the other hand, defended its religion and its language against English invasion as though they were Siamese twins, each unable to live without the other. The present-day French Canadian is still on guard against the English, but he is also concerned lest French anti-clericalism enter the New France, which is now in some respects older than the other France. The nationalist wants to revive Canadian interest in France, but only in the Catholic aspect of France. In practice this amounts to repudiation of the more significant changes in French culture since the fall of the *ancien régime*; definite effort on the part of the clergy has reinforced the usual tendency of a colony to preserve obsolescent features of the mother culture.

The very sincere recognition of this fact (that the clergy has kept the language alive) puts us at ease to note, on the other hand, that it is to these methods and systems of education, to the *prejudice of French ideas*, that one can, in a certain measure, impute the state of present imperfection of the French language in Canada. In reality, our clergy in general and especially our lower clergy . . . wish from France naught but her language. To be more certain that with modern French there shall not also enter into our parishes and colleges the modern ideas of which the language is the natural vehicle, the clergy deems it more prudent to keep to the French of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and convince themselves that this language of Louis XIV is better than that of to-day. . . . The result is that the pupils of our classical colleges finish their humanities without even suspecting that there is a contemporaneous French literature.<sup>6</sup>

In short, the culture of French Canada is viewed as a heritage which must not be polluted, even by the mother France.<sup>7</sup> The im-

<sup>6</sup> Montigny, Louvigny de, *La langue française au Canada*, p. 89.

<sup>7</sup> The point of view to which Montigny refers above is well expressed by Bourassa, the nationalist journalist and politician, in his brochure on "La Presse catholique et nationale," p. 28. "That we ought, as all people of the French language, to have recourse

mediate danger to both language and religion from the English world has served to weld these two into a still more inseparable unit.<sup>8</sup>

*Anglicisms and Bilingualism.*—Since the separation of Canada from France, there has been also an industrial revolution. The resulting new tools and products have reached Quebec from an English-speaking world.

The workingman knows only by their English names most of his tools, the pieces of machinery of his factory, and the majority of the terms of his own trade. He sometimes comes from the country and mingles, without being aware of it, the archaic language of his village with the jargon of the factory; the street and disregard of all verbal policing achieve the formation of a speech of which the following is an almost exact example: "si vous voulez me spérer un wrench pour settler le washer du sink qui s'est démanché." . . . A fact both remarkable and somewhat decisive is that in all our French-Canadian commerce, the merchants who deal in church ornaments are almost the only ones who possess a business vocabulary almost exclusively French. On the one hand, the purchasers of this line of goods mix less than any other class with the English element, and on the other hand, these articles of commerce are generally provided from France; these facts probably explain this happy anomaly of one commercial specialty, at least, braving the deluge of anglicisation. Our very bookshops, which use a truly French terminology so far as they are occupied in the importation and sale of French books, yield more or less to Anglicisms the moment they turn to stationery which is of English or American manufacture, rather than French. . . . This fact shows with some clearness whence comes the peril to which our vocabulary is exposed in other branches of commerce and industry nearly all of which are fed from English or American sources of production.<sup>9</sup>

to the rich treasure of French culture to the end of nourishing our intelligence, no one can contest. But what is most important is to *nationalize* these borrowings and, above all, to christianize them. Of this work of selective culture, *Le Devoir* has done its large share. . . . But if we wish to help our compatriots enrich their intellectual patrimony, we absolutely refuse to reduce their moral patrimony. We find it criminal, anti-social, anti-national, to import without distinction all the products of French thought and to offer to the minds of our country, with equal abandon, healthy food and poison." *Le Devoir* is a Montreal daily paper which M. Bourassa founded. It is not a paying paper.

<sup>8</sup> "The clergy, who in this regard represent in the first rank the French-Canadian population, make the French language so inseparable from Catholicism that they exclude French-speaking Protestants from all *national* associations. It remains to be known whether this exclusiveness, which naturally produces helotism and secessions, is more advantageous than damaging to the advancement of French, as a language, in Canada." Montigny, *op. cit.*, p. 84. Paul Villard's *Up to the Light*, a history of Protestant missionary efforts in Quebec, naïvely and unwittingly shows that the French Canadian, when converted to Protestantism, soon ceases to be French.

<sup>9</sup> Montigny, *op. cit.*, pp. 22, 25.

The impression given by this and other students of the language of French Canada is that of a speech preserving archaic forms because of isolation from the main body of French people, and receiving necessary additions to its vocabulary from another language. Montigny further divides French Canadians into three speech groups: (1) the rural population, with an archaic idiom, (2) the people of the cities, into whose language has crept the vocabulary of the English business world, and (3) the educated people, whose language is more like that of France. The importance of these classes for our purposes is that each is the result of its own peculiar contacts with the English world and that each has its own degree of isolation from France.

Bilingualism but further reflects this situation. The French-Canadian workman is bilingual in that his family vocabulary is French, while his trade vocabulary is English.<sup>10</sup> He may know but one grammar, and that badly. French Canadians vary in this respect from the knowledge of a few English words to the most complete and refined bilingualism. Generally speaking, it is the French Canadian, and not the English one, who is bilingual; this means a spread of the English language rather than of the French. The street, the shop, the counting house, and the political arena demand bilingualism; the *foyer* and the church do not. The French Canadian learns English to get on in the world, because the secular enterprises of Canada transcend French Canada.

Certain occupations which deal with the public in Montreal obviously require persons who speak both languages; such are policemen, salesgirls, telephone operators, street-car conductors, cab-drivers, and delivery boys. Bilingualism leads us directly into the nature of the contacts between the two races in Canada.

## II. INTER-RACIAL ORGANIZATION

The contacts between two peoples, with the cultural consequences thereof, can be understood only in terms of social organization.

<sup>10</sup> The situation in Helsinki, Finland, is reported to differ from this in that there the Finnish-speaking and Swedish-speaking workers have lived in common households and have intermarried to a considerable extent, so that "the bilingualism of the outside community here penetrated into the family." See Heikki Waris, *The Rise of a Workingman's Community on the North Side of the Long Bridge of Helsinki, English Summary* (Helsinki, 1932), p. 25.

Montreal is the major meeting place of the two peoples in question, although there are many cities and towns in which both live. Like other large cities, Montreal is a place of secondary social contacts. It seems likely, however, that the contacts between French and English are even more of this character than they are within either group. One might say that the two groups stand in a symbiotic relationship to each other, were it not true that there are some of each race who are on intimate personal terms with some of the other. There is no line which may not be crossed by religious conversion, inter-marriage, professional success, or social climbing. But some lines are not often crossed; some are more often crossed than others, and in one direction rather than the other. Much more frequent than crossing the line from one race to the other is the phenomenon of standing in some categorical relationship to persons of the other race; relationships which do not involve personal loyalty or sympathy, but do require co-operation and recognition. Such relationships are for the most part incidents of the division of labor.

Of the many activities and institutions which the two races share, there are few in which the participation of both is identical in either number or kind. Probably many more French are employed by English than the reverse. The proportion of French among the subscribers to public utilities probably exceeds the proportion among stock-holders. From appearances, it seems likely that more French are called by their first names by English people than the reverse. In two leading department stores nearly all the elevator-boys and cash-girls, about half the salesmen, and scarcely any of the departmental managers, are French.<sup>11</sup>

If the above statements are facts—something that needs to be verified—they raise the question of prestige. That they are facts seems likely from general observation and from the continual preaching on the subject by French leaders. Over and again in nationalistic literature one meets stinging comment designed to whip the French out of their resignation to the hewing of wood and drawing of water.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> There may be an element of discrimination involved here, as there is a common saying among English that French cannot be intrusted with money or authority.

<sup>12</sup> "One day per year, the day of Saint Jean-Baptiste, the French-Canadians make themselves compliments and vaunt themselves to each other. The rest of the year they

No matter how great the actual disparity in the proportions of French or English at any given level of the social or business scale, there is no social position inherent in belonging to either race. The activities in which both engage are essentially secular; the prestige of the individual is very much a matter of achievement.

In provincial and municipal politics the more important positions are usually held by French, and, of course, the ward-leaders and aldermen of French districts are French. Politics has its secular side, but the voting process tends to reflect feelings as well as secular interests. Hence, if politics be an exception to our rule that the upper levels of secular institutions show a disproportionate number of English, it is a confirming exception. Even so, marked success in politics requires the French Canadian to do a good deal of bargaining with English party leaders. For this very reason the nationalists are suspicious of politics and even of the French-Canadian party politician. They see well the seeds of dissolution in a situation where successful participation in the secular activities of life is contingent upon gaining status in the eyes of the opposing cultural group, even though it be status in a professional capacity only.

The French Canadian, then, is likely to be less French and less devoted to his own people if he attain success in some secular activity. Hence, the French-Canadian patriot, when he has finished lashing the humble for their humility, must turn upon the successful for their susceptibility to an "allrightnick" acceptance of things English.<sup>13</sup> In the church and nationalist organizations alone can the

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belittle themselves. Three hundred and sixty-four days of the year they repeat, the better to convince themselves of it, how great are the others. . . ." Lalonde, *Silhouettes paroissiales*, p. 273.

<sup>13</sup> Henri Bourassa, in *Que devons-nous à l'Angleterre*, suggests that even Sir Wilfred Laurier, the only French Prime Minister of Canada, became in the end more concerned about what the English thought of him than of what his own people thought. The *petite noblesse* are likewise said to have been corrupted by English political and social favors. "Recall what happened to our nobility. Does it not seem to you that the same misfortune is in course of happening under our very eyes to the high *bourgeoisie* of French-Canada? Look at these *arrivistes* of politics or of finance who lie in wait for titles and medals, ready to snap it matters not what 'sir'; count the *dames de luxe* to whom the coveted title, lady, gives fainting fits of rapture in advance. Look finally at these *péroneuses* of the clubs and the *champs de course* who believe it more chic to speak English. And, tell me, is it not among those people that mixed marriages rage with such fury, that betrayals are consummated with an appalling rapidity?" Groulx, *L'appel de la race*,



French Canadian reach the top without compromise. If occupational success entails increased contact with the English world, it is inevitable—at least in our type of society—that social climbing should follow the same road.

In the humbler ranks of life, occupation makes fewer social demands. It is therefore but natural that the gap between the English plumber and the French plumber should be greater than between the French and the English bank president. The gap is, indeed, far from missing even in the professions, where success lies in getting a personal clientèle.

The church and nationalist organizations are the fields of activity for the unsullied French soul; but the careers they offer are in the nature of missions. The church, in one aspect, is a vested interest built upon the cultural peculiarities of the French. The editor of a nationalist paper is an agitator, who pleads with his public to support him as a point of duty.

Between the purely secular activities, represented best by the institution of the corporation operating in a bilingual market, and the sacred mission, represented by the subsidized agitating newspaper, stands a group of activities and their appropriate institutions, which are potentially interracial but which, in practice, show a racial division. Some such institutions perform functions peculiar to one race, while others perform similar functions, but in such a way as to appeal to but one race. The latter stand in the position of opposing armies which, quite without mutual agreement, dig parallel and similar trenches. They stand *en face, l'un à l'autre*. Such are *la société Saint Jean-Baptiste*, facing the Knights of Columbus and the Orangemen: the *syndicats catholiques*, over against the American Federation of Labor. In these latter there are many defections from the ranks of the French, but such cases show us French Canadians

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p. 115. The quotation is from a novel which puts the conflict between the sacred ties of race and the secular pull of ambition into the life of one man, who is educated in law at McGill University, achieves success as the bilingual lawyer for English corporations, climbs socially by marrying an English girl, and by joining the Knights of Columbus (rather than St. Jean-Baptiste) and a golf club. In middle life he feels the pull of his French ancestors, and is violently and painfully converted back to his own people. The last break with the English world comes when his wife and two children go back to her English family, while two remain with him and his cause.

whom secular interests have weaned somewhat from the breast of their mother culture. It is in institutions of these latter types, and in the account of their relationships to each other, that one may expect to find the most penetrating account of the relations between French and English in Canada. They live by preventing racial conflict from being resolved into cold-blooded competition.

Investigation of the relationships between these two cultural groups, or between any others which are thrown together in modern democratic industrial society, might well include the following divisions; first, a study of their cultural peculiarities, and the phases of life in which they are rooted; second, a study of the relationships arising from the differences in extent and character of their participation in those activities, usually secular, which they have in common; third, a study of those institutions which are peculiar to each group, and especially of those which thrive on cultural consciousness.

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## CHILDREN IN BLACK AND MULATTO FAMILIES

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### ABSTRACT

Although the belief in the hereditary inferiority of the mulatto has been slowly dissipated by the accumulation of scientific knowledge, it is still echoed occasionally in scientific studies. In order to determine how far this belief is substantiated or refuted by census data, the writer has analyzed the 1910 and 1920 statistics for children in over 13,000 Negro families for each enumeration in three cities and three rural counties in the South. On the whole, the mulattoes have a smaller proportion of families without children and there is on the average a larger number of children in the mulatto families. Further analysis of the 1920 statistics for the number of children born and living in 10,921 families showed: (1) mulattoes and blacks had about the same proportion of families in which no children were born; (2) on the whole, the mulattoes and blacks in the same community had the same average number of children born; (3) for the entire group a larger proportion of black families had one or more children dead; (4) the blacks had lost on the average a larger number of children; (5) the mulattoes had about 7 per cent more of all their children living than the blacks. Differences in the socio-economic status of these two groups as reflected in literacy and home-ownership seemed to point to cultural rather than biological causes for the differences between them.

In 1860 a physician who contributed monthly articles on the Negro to the *American Cotton Planter* gave considerable space in the December issue to a comparison of the physical qualities of pure Negroes and mulattoes. From that article, which was presumably supported by the best contemporary scientific opinion, we cite the following observations.

. . . . mulattoes are generally much shorter lived than negroes of unmixed blood. The pure African, when judiciously managed, has a reasonable prospect of reaching his three score and ten; and instances of much greater longevity abound. Not so with mulattoes; from want of congeniality in the mixture of white and black blood, or from some unexplained, and perhaps inexplicable cause, they die early as a general rule. . . . . Dr. Cartwright and other learned men might say "the offspring is a *tirtium guid*, unlike either father or mother, and incapable of perpetuating its existence beyond a few generations." We think it would be much better to say at once, it is so, because God made it so; and that he made it so because it was not pleasing to him that the fruits of such an unnatural and unholy commerce should remain long on the earth. But whatever the explanation, there can be but little doubt of the *fact* for it seems to be established by the concurrent testimony of numerous observers. . . . .

Prof. Dugas, of the Medical College of Georgia . . . . forcibly taught in his lectures that mulattoes are short lived; . . . . The testimony of Dr. Merrill, of Memphis, is . . . . that the amalgamation alluded to, exercises important physi-

ological and pathological influences, one of the tendencies of which is, to impair the energies of the vital forces, predispose to a dynamic (low, typhoid) diseases, and to shorten life. These conditions, it is natural to suppose, must have a tendency, also, to the impairment of the procreative powers, and thus to retard increase; while the congenital debility and disordered innervation resulting, give rise to a still greater sacrifice of infant life, than with the full-blooded negro . . . if active, intelligent, house-servants are a prime consideration, and if planters have sufficient means to consult pleasure and convenience before interest, it may do to rest in this mongrel race; but if stout hearty, durable, long lived slaves are wanted, and if pecuniary interest is a permanent consideration, the pure African should be chosen in preference to the mulatto; and *the blacker the better*. The jet black, shiny, unadulterated, greasy-skinned, *strong-smelling* negro is the best every way, after he has been in the country long enough to undergo proper training, and to get rid of some of his native, African notions.<sup>1</sup>

Although the writer was fearful at the time that "the truth that mulattoes are short lived is not as extensively known, and as firmly established in the minds of the southern people as it should be," during the following half-century the beliefs expressed in his article not only became the foundation of popular opinions concerning the mulatto but characterized supposedly scientific studies. In 1896 Hoffman, who concluded that mulattoes were "physically the inferior of the white and pure black," based his opinion largely on the testimony of physicians who examined recruits during the Civil War. The following is a typical testimony: "Although I have known some muscular and healthy mulattoes, I am convinced that, as a general rule, any considerable admixture of white blood deteriorates the physique and impairs the powers of endurance, and almost always introduces a scrofulous taint."<sup>2</sup>

The small lung-capacity of the mulatto, according to Hoffman, was responsible for the low vital capacity of the mixed blood and was "without question the most serious fact affecting the longevity of the mixed races, and one which explains the lower vitality and less resistance to disease than is found in the negro of pure blood."<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Jno. Stainback Wilson, M.D., "The Peculiarities and Diseases of Negroes." Dr. Cloud's Southern Rural Magazine, *The American Cotton Planter and Soil of the South* (Montgomery, Ala., 1860), pp. 558-60.

<sup>2</sup> Quoted in Frederick L. Hoffman, *Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro*, Publications of the American Economic Association, XI, Nos. 1, 2, and 3 (New York, 1896), 182.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 184.

Some years later Tillinghast, after an examination of extant materials on the physical qualities of the mulatto, concluded that "the Negro-Teutonic hybrid is more or less degenerate in physical vigor and fertility."<sup>4</sup> One source of his conclusions was the opinion of Broca that mulattoes issuing from primary crossings between the Anglo-Saxon race and African Negroes were inferior in fecundity and longevity to individuals of the pure race. Moreover, Broca thought that it was doubtful "whether these mulattoes, in their alliances between themselves, are capable of indefinitely perpetuating their race;" and "that they are less prolific in their direct alliances than in their recrossing with parent stocks."<sup>5</sup> Tillinghast also found what he regarded as scientific authority for his conclusions in the opinion of J. C. Nott, a southern physician, that "mulatto women are delicate, distinctly infertile, and have weak children; that when mulattoes went to marry they were less prolific than when crossed with either pure race."<sup>6</sup>

Boas' statement in 1909 that "notwithstanding the oft-repeated assertions regarding the hereditary inferiority of the mulatto, we know hardly anything on the subject,"<sup>7</sup> was an appraisal of the opinions which we have traced as well as an indication of a new critical attitude toward the question. Two years later this attitude was expressed in a paper by Finch who reviewed the situation of mixed populations in various parts of the earth, and used the significant increase from 1870 to 1890 in the percentage of mulattoes in the United States as evidence of the fertility of the mulatto.<sup>8</sup> Not long ago Dunn summed up the situation in regard to our knowledge of hybrids as follows:

With regard to fecundity, the evidence is fragmentary and difficult of interpretation. There is a lack of good biological evidence on human fecundity in general, in the absence of which it is impossible to say how much of the often-noted differences in this respect between races and their hybrids rest on a biological basis and how much is due to economic and social causes. The birth-rate itself is an expression of the interaction of these several factors and of another

<sup>4</sup> J. A. Tillinghast, *The Negro in Africa and America* (New York, 1902), p. 123.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 120.

<sup>6</sup> Quoted in Tillinghast, *op. cit.*, p. 118.

<sup>7</sup> Franz Boas, "Race Problems in America," *Science* (N.S.), XXIX (1909), 848; quoted in *Anthropology* by A. C. Haddon (London, n.d.), p. 69.

<sup>8</sup> Earl Finch, "The Effects of Racial Miscegenation" in *Papers in Interracial Problems* (edited by G. Spiller) (London, 1911), p. 110.

item by no means negligible, i.e., the amount of mortality among the unborn offspring. The last may be somewhat lower in mixed than in pure matings. Little, for example, found a greater proportion of still births from intraracial or intra-national matings than from matings of different race or nationality. There is some evidence from animals which shows that crossing tends to prevent the expression of factors having an adverse effect on embryonic development, while pure matings allow greater scope for the combination and expression of such factors. In regard to fecundity itself, or the number of potential offspring produced in the absence of social and economic checks, we can draw no conclusions. A lowered gross fecundity has not been established for cross-matings, and the hybrid groups considered are experiencing no difficulty from biological causes in reproducing and increasing in number.<sup>9</sup>

But in spite of the more critical attitude generally toward the question of the character of the human hybrid, it seems that the belief in the hereditary inferiority of the mulatto still persists; for we find as recently as 1929 that Gini attributes the low nuptial fecundity of the American Negro to his mixed blood.<sup>10</sup> In this paper we shall present the results of an attempt to determine what light could be shed on the full-blooded Negro and mulatto by an analysis of the 1920 and 1910 census data on Negro and mulatto families in selected urban and rural communities in the South.<sup>11</sup>

Perhaps something should be said about the selection of these communities, which were chosen originally for a study of the Negro family against a variety of economic and social backgrounds in the

<sup>9</sup> L. C. Dunn, "A Biological View of Race Mixture," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XIX (1925), 54.

<sup>10</sup> Corrado Gini, "The Birth and Revival of Nations," *Population* ("Lectures on the Harris Foundation, 1929" [Chicago, 1930]). In accounting for the low nuptial fecundity of the American Negro, Gini writes: "When we remember that most American Negroes are really of mixed blood (only 22 per cent are pure-blooded, according to the researches of Herskovits, *The American Negro*, p. 9), we may conclude that there is some truth in the impressions of those who declare that the unions of Negroes with Whites are not very fertile." Notes, pp. 134-35.

<sup>11</sup> The writer is not unconscious of the criticism which can be brought against the use of the census classification of blacks and mulattoes as an index to the extent of mixed bloods among the Negroes. At the census of 1910 the term "black" included all persons who were "evidently full-blooded Negroes," while the term "mulatto" included "all other persons having some proportion or perceptible trace of Negro blood" (*Negro Population, 1790-1915*, p. 207). The same definition of mulattoes and of full-blooded Negroes was used in 1920. While the census bureau admits the uncertainty of the classification since the distinction "depends largely upon the judgment and care employed by the enumerators," the classification probably contains on the whole as much accuracy as one could obtain.

South. Charleston, South Carolina, and Birmingham, Alabama, both in the Black Belt, offer not only the contrast between a seaport and an inland city, but more especially the contrast between a relatively stationary Negro population with a long history of urban experience and one that has grown by leaps and bounds through migration from the surrounding rural area to a rapidly growing industrial center. From 1890 to 1920 the Negro population of Charleston remained close to 30,000, while Birmingham's Negro population grew from 11,269 in 1890 to 70,230 in 1920. The increase from 16,575 in 1900 to 52,305 in 1910 amounted to 215 per cent. The Negro population of the city of Nashville, Tennessee, which stands on the edge of the Black Belt and has no heavy industry to attract Negroes in large numbers from the rural areas, was about the same as Charleston for 1890 and 1900 but increased to 36,523 in 1910. During the following decade there was a slight decrease, probably due to the northward migrations, so that in 1920 the Negro population numbered 35,633.

The three counties which were also selected for study—Hertford County, North Carolina; Macon County, Alabama; and Issaquena County, Mississippi—offer contrasts in rural areas equally striking as those in the three cities. Hertford County, located in the northeastern part of the state of North Carolina, is, on the whole, outside of the area of the plantation and cotton culture. In 1910 about one-third of the Negro farmers, who constituted about 60 per cent of the entire population, were owners. According to the same census, around 40 per cent of them were mulattoes and less than a third were illiterate. On the other hand, the Negro farmers in the counties in Alabama and Mississippi were working under the plantation system. In Macon County the majority, or about 90 per cent, of the Negro farmers, who constituted about five-sixths of the population, were tenants. The Negroes in Issaquena County constituted a larger percentage—about 95 per cent—of the total population. The illiteracy of the Negroes in both of these counties in 1910 was about 43 per cent, or 13 per cent higher than in Hertford County. Moreover, only one-eighth of the Negroes in Macon County and about a tenth of those in Issaquena County were classified as mulattoes.

We shall begin our analysis with a comparison of the number of children present in Negro and mulatto families when the enumera-

tions were made in 1910 and 1920.<sup>12</sup> But let us note first the striking differences between these families (Table I) in respect to the proportion of families in which no children were present. In all three cities at both enumerations, except Birmingham in 1920, there was a significantly larger proportion of black families than mulatto families in which there were no children.<sup>13</sup> The differences in the proportion of childless families in these two types of families range from 5.4 per cent in Charleston in 1920 to 14.0 per cent in the same city for 1910. The mixed families, i.e., those families in which the husband and wife were of different color, showed on the whole a smaller proportion of childless families than the black families; but the number of mixed families was probably too small for comparison except in Birmingham where the proportion of families without children was comparatively small for the families in which the husband was black and the wife mulatto.<sup>14</sup>

<sup>12</sup> The families used in our analysis were taken from the original census returns. They were not the "families" or households as defined by the census, but included the following types of relationships: (1) a married couple and their own, adopted, and step-children, if any; (2) a married person whose spouse is not living at home, and the children of that person, if any; (3) a widowed or divorced person and the children, if any; (4) a single man and woman who, from the information in the "relation to the head of the house" column, or from other information on the schedule, appear to be living as man and wife; (5) a single girl who has an illegitimate child where this was clear. These families have been classified according to the four combinations of Negro and mulatto men and women in the marriage relation.

<sup>13</sup> These families were selected at random from enumeration districts in all sections of these cities and show approximately the same proportion of blacks and mulattoes as the entire Negro population in each of these three cities. The proportion of mixed blooded Negroes given in the census is much smaller than the estimate made by Dr. Herskovits. (See *The American Negro*, New York, 1928, p. 10.) However, it should be remembered that Dr. Herskovits' study was based largely on selected groups of Negroes in which mulattoes were relatively numerous. As we consider the areas which have been selected for the comparison of black and mulatto families, we find that the proportion of these two elements in the Negro population given in the census confirms what we know of the relative isolation of the Negro in these areas. First-hand observation of Negroes in two counties—one in North Carolina and the other in Alabama—forces one to accept the proportion of mulattoes and blacks given in the census as a closer approximation to the facts than Dr. Herskovits' estimate.

<sup>14</sup> The proportion of mixed families—where husband and wife are of different color—as shown by these census figures confirms what we know of intermarriage between these two elements in the Negro population, namely, the tendency for a considerably larger proportion of black men to marry mulatto women than for mulatto men to marry black women. (See E. B. Reuter, "The Superiority of the Mulatto," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXIII, 103-5.)



TABLE I  
PERCENTAGE OF NEGRO FAMILIES WITHOUT CHILDREN AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN NEGRO FAMILIES  
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE COLOR OF THE PARENTS, IN THREE SOUTHERN CITIES: 1910 AND 1920

COLOR OF HUSBAND AND WIFE	1920			1910				
	Total Number of Families	Percentage of Families without Children	Average Number of Children		Total Number of Families	Percentage of Families without Children	Average Number of Children	
			All Families	Families with Children			All Families	Families with Children
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1031	56.8	0.8	1.9	1150	49.6	1.0	2.0
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	65	52.3	1.0	2.1	94	40.4	1.4	2.3
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	10	70.0	0.8	2.6	37	29.7	1.3	1.8
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	503	45.1	1.1	2.2	345	41.1	1.2	2.1
BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	3864	50.2	1.0	2.1	3575	48.3	1.1	2.1
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	259	47.5	1.0	1.9	259	45.5	1.2	2.3
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	73	45.2	1.3	2.5	73	52.0	0.8	1.8
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	869	51.5	1.0	2.1	353	38.5	1.5	2.4
CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1398	50.4	1.0	2.0	1368	47.6	1.0	2.0
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	18	38.8	1.1	1.9	39	36.0	1.4	2.1
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	13	38.4	1.4	2.2	17	17.6	2.3	2.8
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	250	36.4	1.5	2.4	303	42.2	1.3	2.3

When we consider the average number of children in these families we find the advantage to be on the side of the mulatto families. For example, in Charleston in 1920, there was on the average in the mulatto families one-half a child more than in the black families. Or if we take into account only those families in which children were actually present the mulatto families had on the average four-tenths of a child more than the black families. In this same city the difference in 1910 for families with children was three-tenths of a child in favor of the mulatto families. The other two cities, with the exception of Birmingham in 1920, also showed variations for both census enumerations in favor of the mulattoes.

The black and mulatto families in the three counties (Table II) show, on the whole, the same differences which are observable for the three cities.<sup>15</sup> We find for both enumerations, with the exception of Macon County in 1920 and Hertford County in 1910, a smaller proportion of families without children among the mulatto families than among the blacks, and the average number of children higher, with the exception of Macon County in 1920, in the mulatto families.

So far our comparison of these families in the six communities indicates that, for both census enumerations, the mulattoes with few exceptions had a smaller proportion of families without children and a larger average number of children in their families. Our figures, of course, give no clue to the comparative fecundity of these families nor the survival rates of their children. The small differences in the average number of children in the mulatto and black families could have been due to chance, although this fact considered along with the significantly larger proportion of families without children among the blacks may indicate fewer broken families among the mulattoes. In both the case of Birmingham and Macon County, Alabama, in 1920, where the differences which were observable in 1910 have disappeared, the migrations during the war period may have operated to wipe out these differences.

Let us now see what these families show in respect to the number

<sup>15</sup> Our comparison of the mulatto and black families in the three counties is based upon approximately 100 families from each of the ten precincts in Macon County and practically all the Negro families in Issaquena County and Hertford County.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF NEGRO FAMILIES WITHOUT CHILDREN AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN NEGRO FAMILIES,  
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE COLOR OF THE PARENTS, IN THREE SOUTHERN COUNTIES: 1910 AND 1920

COLOR OF HUSBAND AND WIFE	1920			1910				
	Total Number of Families	Percentage of Families without Children	Average Number of Children		Total Number of Families	Percentage of Families without Children	Average Number of Children	
			All Families	Families with Children			All Families	Families with Children
HERTFORD COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1220	19.0	2.7	3.3	1049	18.2	2.8	3.4
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	174	14.3	3.1	3.6	131	16.0	2.8	3.8
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	50	10.0	2.9	3.2	44	22.7	3.2	3.6
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	622	15.9	2.9	3.6	657	20.1	2.9	3.6
MACON COUNTY, ALABAMA								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	900	31.7	2.1	3.1	890	29.1	2.2	3.7
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	37	13.5	2.3	2.5	47	14.9	3.1	3.6
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	39	25.6	2.3	3.1	40	22.5	3.1	3.9
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	64	34.3	2.0	3.0	63	17.5	2.9	3.6
ISSAQUENA COUNTY, MISSISSIPPI								
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1893	48.8	1.3	2.6	2504	45.1	1.4	2.6
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	48	50.0	1.4	2.9	135	37.0	1.7	2.7
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	47	38.3	1.6	2.6	91	38.4	1.6	2.7
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	46	34.8	1.9	2.9	196	42.3	1.6	2.8

of children born and living according to the 1910 enumeration.<sup>16</sup> We note, first, that for the three cities (Table III) the percentage of families in which no children were born was practically the same for the black and the mulatto families in each city. Moreover, the black and mulatto families show no differences in the average number of children born, except in Birmingham where the black families had given birth to three-tenths of a child less than the mulatto families. Although in most instances the number of families in which the husband and wife were of different color was probably too small for comparison, they show on the whole a larger proportion of families with no children born than the families in which husband and wife were of the same color. Except in Birmingham the average number of children born in these families was higher for those families in which the husband was mulatto and the wife black than for the families in which the color of the parents was the reverse.

Significant differences between the black and mulatto families appear when we compare them in respect to the percentage of their children surviving. In Charleston and Birmingham, where the average number of children dead for the families which have lost children is the same, the proportion of families losing children is higher—8.5 per cent in Charleston and 6.4 per cent in Birmingham—for the black families. On the other hand, in Nashville, where both types of families have about the same proportion with children dead, the black families have lost on the average one child more than the mulatto families. The cumulative effect of these differences appears in the percentage of all children living in these families. (See Chart I.) In all three cities a larger percentage of the children born in the mulatto families are living. These differences range from 5.9 per cent in Charleston to 7.4 per cent in Birmingham. Moreover, the effect of the differences in the survival rates of children in these two types of families is shown in the average number of children living. On the basis of either the families that had children born or only those that had children living, the mulatto families in each of the three cities had living at least three-tenths of a child more than the black families.

<sup>16</sup> The number of families used in this comparison is necessarily smaller than in the first comparison since the information on the number of children born and living was omitted in some families.

BIRTH AND SURVIVAL RATES OF CHILDREN IN NEGRO FAMILIES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE COLOR OF THE PARENTS, IN THREE SOUTHERN CITIES IN 1910

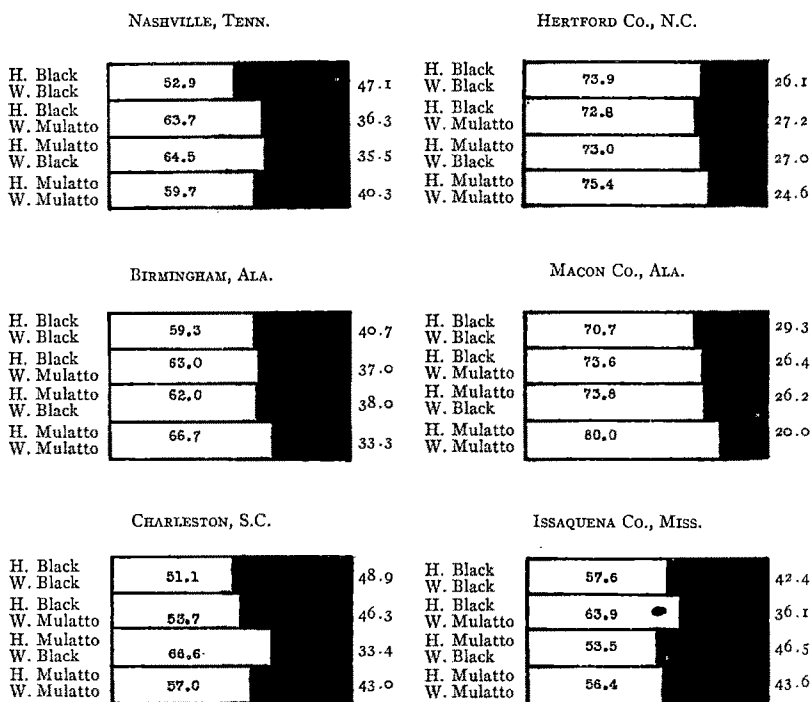
COLOR OF HUSBAND AND WIFE	TOTAL NUMBER OF FAMILIES	PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH NO CHILDREN BORN	AVERAGE NUMBER CHILDREN BORN		PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN BORN LOSING ONE OR MORE CHILDREN	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHIL- DREN DEAD PER FAMILY WITH CHILDREN DEAD	PERCENT- AGE OF ALL CHILDREN LIVING	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING		
			All Families	Families with Children Born				All Families	Families with Children Born	Families with Children Living
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	951	20.8	3.3	4.1	57.1	3.9	52.9	1.7	2.2	2.5
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	90	27.7	2.6	3.5	55.3	2.3	63.7	1.6	2.3	2.4
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	37	25.9	3.3	4.5	66.6	2.4	64.5	2.1	2.9	3.2
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	296	20.2	3.3	4.2	58.0	2.9	59.7	2.0	2.5	2.8
BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	2965	23.5	2.9	3.9	57.4	2.7	59.3	1.7	2.3	2.6
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	249	34.1	2.4	3.6	61.6	2.2	63.0	1.5	2.3	2.7
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	71	32.3	2.0	3.0	52.1	2.2	62.0	1.2	1.8	2.1
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	399	22.6	3.2	4.2	51.0	2.7	66.7	2.1	2.8	3.0
CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1028	18.3	3.4	4.3	63.9	3.3	51.1	1.8	2.1	2.4
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	33	6.0	3.6	3.9	61.3	2.9	53.7	1.9	2.1	2.2
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	16	18.8	3.9	4.8	61.6	2.4	66.6	2.6	3.2	3.2
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	238	18.8	3.4	4.2	55.4	3.3	57.0	1.9	2.4	2.7

Somewhat similar differences between the black and mulatto families in the three counties (Table IV) appear when they are compared in respect to children born and living. In the two Black Belt

CHART I

PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN LIVING AND DEAD IN 10,921 NEGRO FAMILIES,  
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE COLOR OF THE PARENTS, IN THREE  
CITIES AND THREE RURAL COUNTIES IN THE SOUTH: 1910

□ Living    ■ Dead    H=Husband    W=Wife



counties the percentage of families with no children born was slightly smaller for the mulattoes than for the blacks, while in the North Carolina county the reverse was true. Likewise, the mulatto families in the Black Belt counties unlike those in Hertford County show a higher number of children born on the average—about one-half a child—than the black families. Although the black and mulatto

TABLE IV  
BIRTH AND SURVIVAL RATES OF CHILDREN IN NEGRO FAMILIES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE COLOR OF THE PARENTS, IN THREE SOUTHERN RURAL COUNTIES IN 1910

COLOR OF HUSBAND AND WIFE	TOTAL NUMBER OF FAMILIES	PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH NO CHILDREN BORN	AVERAGE NUMBER CHILDREN BORN		PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN BORN LOSING ONE OR MORE CHILDREN	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN DEAD PER FAMILY WITH CHILDREN DEAD	PERCENT- AGE OF ALL CHILDREN LIVING	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING		
			All Families	Families with Children Born				All Families	Families with Children Born	Families with Children Living
HERTFORD COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	829	6.0	5.3	5.6	54.8	2.7	73.9	3.9	4.1	4.3
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	123	8.1	5.1	5.5	59.3	2.7	72.8	3.6	3.9	4.0
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	41	12.2	5.1	5.8	61.1	2.6	73.0	3.7	4.3	4.6
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	577	7.8	5.1	5.5	55.8	2.4	75.4	3.9	4.2	4.3
MACON COUNTY, GEORGIA										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	693	6.9	4.9	5.2	56.1	2.7	70.7	3.4	3.6	3.9
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	40	7.5	5.4	5.8	62.1	2.5	73.6	4.0	4.3	4.5
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	32	9.3	5.5	6.0	62.0	2.5	73.8	4.0	4.5	4.6
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	51	5.9	5.4	5.7	54.1	2.2	80.0	4.3	4.6	4.7
ISSAQUENA COUNTY, MISSISSIPPI										
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	1882	15.2	3.7	4.6	66.2	3.4	57.6	2.6	3.0	3.4
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	121	19.8	3.7	4.6	74.9	1.8	63.9	2.3	2.9	3.4
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	83	21.7	4.4	5.6	80.7	2.5	53.5	2.3	3.0	3.4
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	106	13.8	4.5	5.2	66.4	3.4	50.4	2.5	3.0	3.2

families did not show any marked difference in respect to the proportion that had lost children in Hertford County and Macon County, the blacks had lost on the average—three-tenths of a child in the first county and five-tenths of a child in the second—more than the mulatto families. The effects (see Chart I) of these differential survival rates of children are shown in the percentage of all children living. Whereas in Issaquena County there was a slightly higher proportion of the children of the blacks living, this was more than compensated for by the higher survival rate of the children of mulattoes in the other two counties.

In Table V we have a composite picture of each of the four types of families in the six communities. In this composite picture the differences which we have noted for the individual areas become better defined. It appears that while the black families have only a slightly larger proportion of families in which no children were born than the mulattoes, the families in which the husband and wife are of different complexion have a significantly greater proportion of childless families than either of the other two types of families. The mulatto families have had born on the average a larger number of children—about one-fourth of a child—than the blacks,<sup>17</sup> and have a smaller proportion of families with children dead. In addition, the mulatto families which have lost children have a smaller number dead on the average than the same families among the blacks. Consequently, we find a higher survival rate of children, amounting to 7.1 per cent, for the children of the mulattoes. This higher survival rate among the children of the mulattoes is equivalent to about one-half a child on the average for families that have had children born, and slightly less than one-half a child if we take into account only the families with children living.

Although it is not our purpose to undertake to explain the differences, which our analysis has revealed, between the black and mulatto families, it should be pointed out that in two respects at least the mulatto families were of superior socio-economic status. In the first instance the mulattoes in all the six communities, as is true

<sup>17</sup> This might have been due to the fact that mulatto women had been married longer on the average than the black women. In Birmingham the mulatto women in each five years age group had been married longer than the black women.



TABLE V  
SUMMARY OF BIRTH AND SURVIVAL RATES OF CHILDREN IN 10,921 NEGRO FAMILIES IN SIX SOUTHERN COMMUNITIES IN 1910

COLOR OF HUSBAND AND WIFE	TOTAL NUMBER OF FAMILIES	PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH NO CHILDREN BORN	AVERAGE NUMBER CHILDREN BORN		PERCENT- AGE OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN BORN LOSING ONE OR MORE CHILDREN	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN DEAD PER FAMILY WITH CHILDREN DEAD	PERCENT- AGE OF ALL CHILDREN LIVING	AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING		
			All Families	Families with Children Born				All Families	Families with Children Born	Families with Children Living
Husband Black, Wife Black.....	8348	17.6	3.81	4.62	59.6	3.05	60.6	2.30	2.80	3.12
Husband Black, Wife Mulatto.....	656	22.7	3.43	4.43	66.2	2.27	66.0	2.26	2.93	3.28
Husband Mulatto, Wife Black.....	280	22.1	3.86	4.96	72.4	2.48	63.8	2.46	3.17	3.49
Husband Mulatto, Wife Mulatto.....	1637	15.0	4.16	4.89	56.3	2.81	67.7	2.81	3.31	3.55
Total.....	10,921	17.6	3.84	4.66	59.8	2.95	62.1	2.38	2.89	3.21

for the country as a whole, have a lower illiteracy rate than the blacks.<sup>18</sup> For example, in 1910 in Macon County both parents were illiterate in 39.2 per cent of the black families as compared with 23.4 per cent of the mulatto families. For the same census in Hertford County 35.3 per cent of the black families and 24.4 per cent of the mulatto families had both parents illiterate. The same was true in the cities. In 1910 in Birmingham 24.2 per cent of the black families had both parents illiterate, while among the mulattoes in only 16.4 per cent of the families were both parents unable to read and write. Moreover, we find differences in the rates of home ownership for the black and mulatto families which indicate more stable family life among the mulattoes.<sup>19</sup> In Nashville, for example, our figures show that 7.5 per cent of the black families at both censuses owned homes, while the home owners among the mulatto families increased from 17.4 per cent in 1910 to 19.3 per cent in 1920. In Birmingham the differences between the blacks and mulattoes were much smaller, while in Charleston the disparity between them was most pronounced. For 1910 and 1920 home ownership among the black families in Charleston was 2.2 per cent and 5.8 per cent, respectively, while among the mulatto families it amounted to 7.5 per cent and 24.4 per cent. In the counties we can observe the same differences. In Issaquena County in 1910 where there was scarcely any difference between the two types of families with respect to the survival rate of children, home ownership for the mulattoes and blacks was only 8.1 and 5.4 per cent, respectively. While both black and mulatto families in Hertford County had a comparatively high proportion of home owners, here too the advantage was on the side of the mulattoes. Our figures for this county in 1910 show that 23.5 per cent of black and 37.6 per cent of the mulatto families were home owners. Finally, it should be noted that the families in which the husband and wife were of different color had a relatively high rate of ownership in conjunction with the high survival rate of children shown in our analysis.

<sup>18</sup> *Negro Population: 1790-1915* (Washington, 1918), p. 217.

<sup>19</sup> See E. Franklin Frazier, *The Negro Family in Chicago* (Chicago, 1932), pp. 100, 127, where literacy and home-ownership rates within the city varied with the proportion of mulattoes in the Negro population.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Our analysis of 1910 and 1920 census data for over thirteen thousand Negro families in three cities and three rural counties in the South has shown first that, with three exceptions, for both enumerations there was a significantly smaller proportion of mulatto families without children than black families; and with two exceptions included in the three referred to, the average number of children present in the mulatto families was higher than in the black families. Further analysis of the 1910 data on the number of children born and living in 10,921 of these families showed that in each community the blacks and mulattoes had practically the same proportion of families with no children born. Moreover, with the exception of the Black Belt counties and Birmingham the average number of children born was the same for the black and mulatto families. But in regard to the survival of children differences between these families were found to be as follows: where the mulattoes and blacks had the same proportion of families with children dead, the mulatto families had lost on an average fewer children; but where the mulattoes had a smaller proportion of families with children dead, both types of families had lost on the average the same number of children. As the result of these differences, the percentage of the total children surviving was higher for the mulatto families in each community except the Mississippi county. These differences in the survival rates of children was reflected in the higher number of children on the average in the mulatto families.

Although one might question the accuracy of the census classification as an index to the proportion of mixed bloods in the Negro population, the group classified as mulattoes is undoubtedly of mixed blood. This group from our analysis is differentiated from the group supposedly of unmixed blood. Although our data do not warrant generalizations concerning the whole Negro population, much less speculation on the causes of the differences and absence of differences between the black and mulatto families in particular communities, we cannot forego pointing out certain economic and social factors which have a bearing on these differences. In Issaquena County, Mississippi, where there was practically no difference in the survival rate of black and mulatto children, the black and

mulatto families were on nearly the same economic and social level. Moreover, the population in this county dwindled between 1890 and 1900 and remained almost stationary during the next decade. It is probable that many mulattoes, more especially the thrifty and ambitious, migrated. On the other hand, in Hertford County where the blacks show a relatively high rate of home ownership and approach the social and economic level of the mulattoes, their children show a higher survival rate than the blacks in Mississippi and Alabama and come close to that of the mulattoes. In the case of both Birmingham and Macon County, Alabama, where the differences which were apparent in 1910 did not appear in 1920, the migrations into the city as well as those to the North during the war might have effaced the differences between the two groups. Likewise, although our analysis might lead some to a conclusion directly opposite to that generally held—that mixed-bloods have a lower survival rate than pure-bloods—at least two socio-economic differences between the blacks and mulattoes indicate that cultural rather than biological factors are responsible for the higher survival rate of mulatto children. Both in respect to literacy and home ownership, which may be taken as an index of more stable family life, the advantage was found to be on the side of the mulattoes.

Finally, so far as our statistics afford an answer, the higher proportion of children which has been observed in the mulatto population seems to be due not to a higher birth-rate or other causes, but more especially to the higher survival rate of mulatto children.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>20</sup> In commenting upon the higher proportion of children in the mulatto population, the census states: "While the higher proportion of children in the mulatto population might result from a higher birth rate in this element, as compared with the black element, or from a higher mortality in the adult population among mulattoes, as compared with blacks, the more probable explanation is to be found in the mixed marriages of mulattoes with blacks. The children of such marriages will in a majority of cases be classified as mulattoes, although only one-half of the parents are in this class. In other words, to the extent that blacks marry mulattoes they are in a majority of cases esopped from any natural increase whatever since their children are credited to the mulatto element." *Negro Population in the United States, 1790-1915*, Washington, D.C., 1918, p. 213.

## SUICIDE IN MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA: 1928-32<sup>1</sup>

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### ABSTRACT

During the four-year period 1928-32, according to the files of the Hennepin County coroner and of the Minneapolis Department of Health, the total mean rate of suicides in Minneapolis, Minnesota, was 23.9 per 100,000 population—36.9 for males and 11.6 for females. The highest rate occurred at the center of the city and the marginal area surrounding. The trend during the period from 1900 to 1931 has been upward, being especially marked during the past three years. All of the suicides were over fifteen years of age, the rate showing tendency to increase with age. For native-born the rate is 19.0 and for foreign-born 48.6. For males the married have the lowest rate; for females, single persons. For both males and females the rates of widowed and divorced are highest. By occupation, males in agriculture and animal husbandry have highest rates with laborers next; those in clerical and professional occupations have lowest. The highest rates for females are in domestic and personal service, and in trade. Tuesday is the most frequently chosen day for male suicides and Thursday for female. Saturday for males and Sunday and Monday for females are least often chosen. January and February show higher rates than other months. Asphyxia, firearms, poison, hanging and strangulation, and drowning rank in the order given as means of suicide. Physical disorders and economic difficulties rate higher as causes among male suicides, nervous and mental disorders and affectional difficulties among women.

The basic data for this study of suicide in Minneapolis, Minnesota, for the four-year period, 1928-32,<sup>2</sup> were tabulated directly from the files of the Hennepin County coroner and the Minneapolis Department of Health. During this four-year period there were 444 suicides, of which 333 were males and 111 females. The total mean rate per 100,000 of population was 23.9.

It will be seen from Charts I and II that the highest suicide rates are at the center of the city as well as in the marginal area surround-

<sup>1</sup> It was found necessary, because of the limited space available, to confine this study mainly to a presentation of statistical facts with relatively few interpretations and comments. For a more detailed discussion of definitions, methodology, and the wider implications of the various points included in this paper see Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925: An Ecological and Behavioristic Study*, University of Washington Publications in the Social Sciences (Seattle, Washington, 1928), *passim*; also, cf. another study by the same author entitled "Suicides in Seattle, Washington, and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: A Comparative Study" (Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1930) (unpublished), *passim*.

<sup>2</sup> This four-year period which extends from April 1, 1928, to April 1, 1932, represents two years on either side of the last census date.

ing the center. The mean rates per 100,000 of population for the three Enumeration districts (Nos. 83, 84, and 85) that comprise this section were 307, 320, and 310, respectively.<sup>3</sup> Furthermore, it will be seen from Chart II that there is a larger proportion of male, non-resident, and unidentified suicides in this section than in any other part of the city.<sup>4</sup>

The explanations for such an abnormally high suicide incidence in this section of the city may, for convenience and clarity, be considered under two general headings: (1) *Practical considerations in the derivation of rates*, which would include (a) the composition of the population, especially in relation to age, sex, occupation, and marital status, and (b) turnover of population; (2) *ecological factors*, such as mobility of population, social disorganization, and economic influences. Since the relative numbers of males, unmarried people, migratory workers, and adults, especially of the older age groups, are so high in this section of the city, one would naturally expect to find a high suicide rate.<sup>5</sup> Because of the relatively high rate of population turnover in this section the census enumeration taken as of April 1, 1930, is not nearly so representative for this part of the city as it is for the less mobile districts. Hence, in computing rates for various territorial units on a population base taken as of a given day, the relative turnover within the period under consideration would affect the comparability of the data.

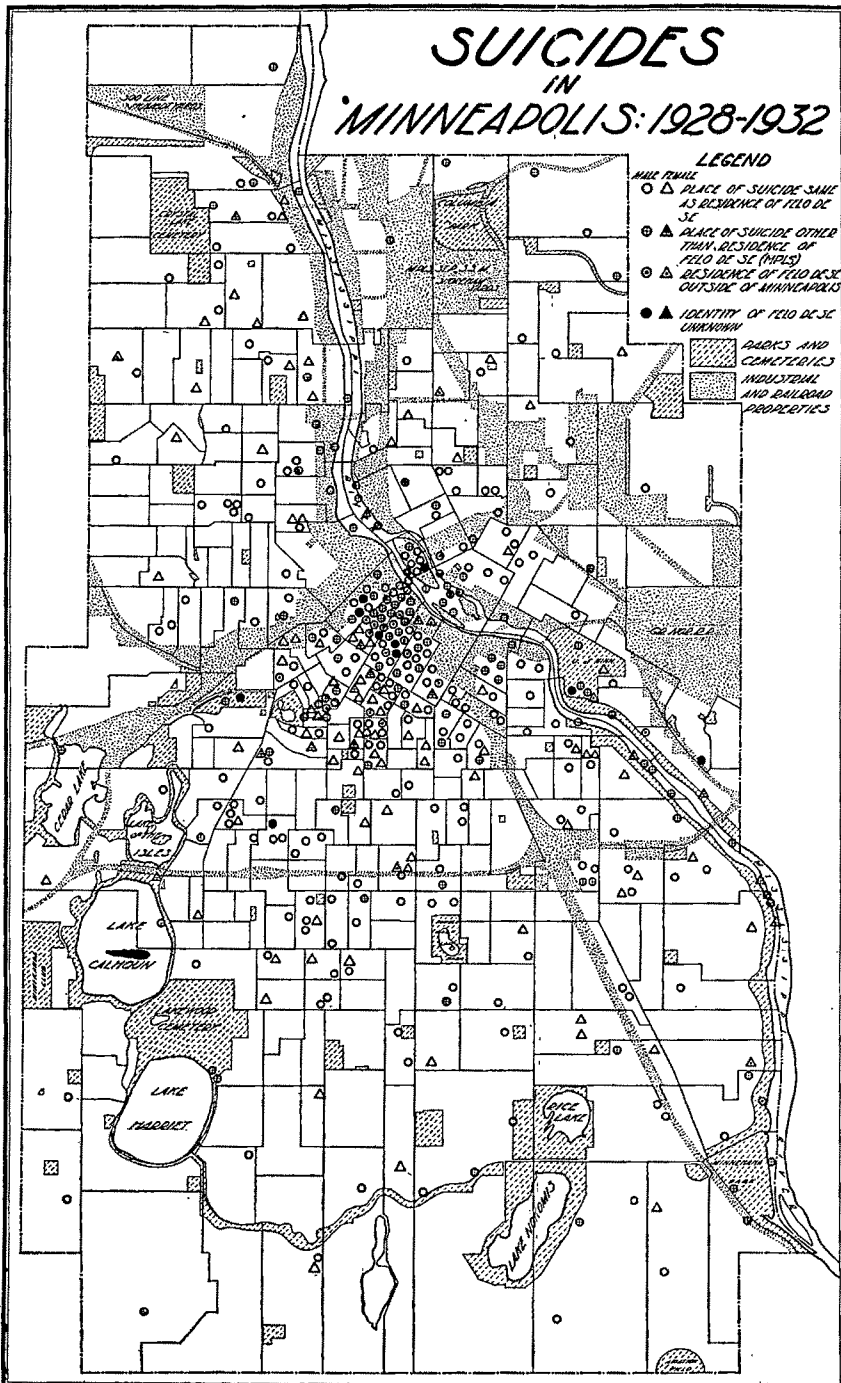
In addition to the explanations enumerated above, there are certain ecological factors such as mobility of population, anonymity, social disorganization, and economic influences that help to account for the excessive suicide incidence in this part of the city. The suicide locale as shown on Charts I and II comprises Minneapolis' "Hobohemia," the habitat of the homeless man, as well as the dis-

<sup>3</sup> It will be noted that the rates are based on the population fifteen years of age and over.

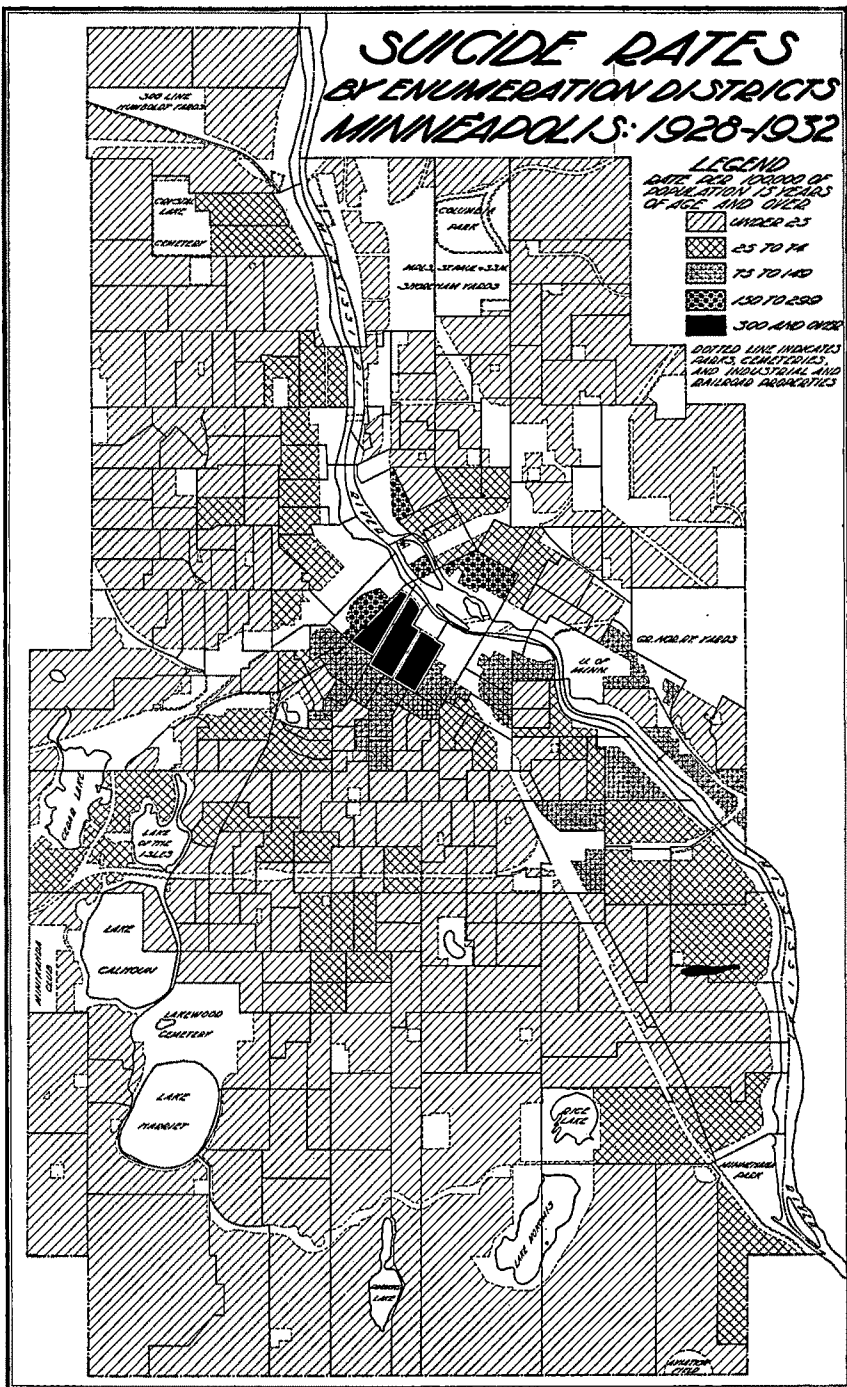
<sup>4</sup> For a discussion of the significance of these facts see: Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925: An Ecological and Behavioristic Study*, University of Washington Publications in the Social Sciences (Seattle, Washington, 1928), pp. 4-23. Cf. Andrew W. Lind, "Some Ecological Patterns of Community Disorganization in Honolulu," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXVI, No. 2 (September, 1930), 206-20.

<sup>5</sup> For the further implications of age, sex, occupation, and marital status to suicide, see *infra*.

CHART I



## CHART II





trict of higher-class hotels. It is here that the main currents of travel and traffic, both within and from without the city, converge. This area is a land of transiency and anonymity. In such a district one almost invariably finds a large amount of social disorganization.<sup>6</sup> It will also be noticed that the enumeration districts bordering the main suicide area, in which are located many apartments and rooming houses, show relatively high suicide rates.<sup>7</sup>

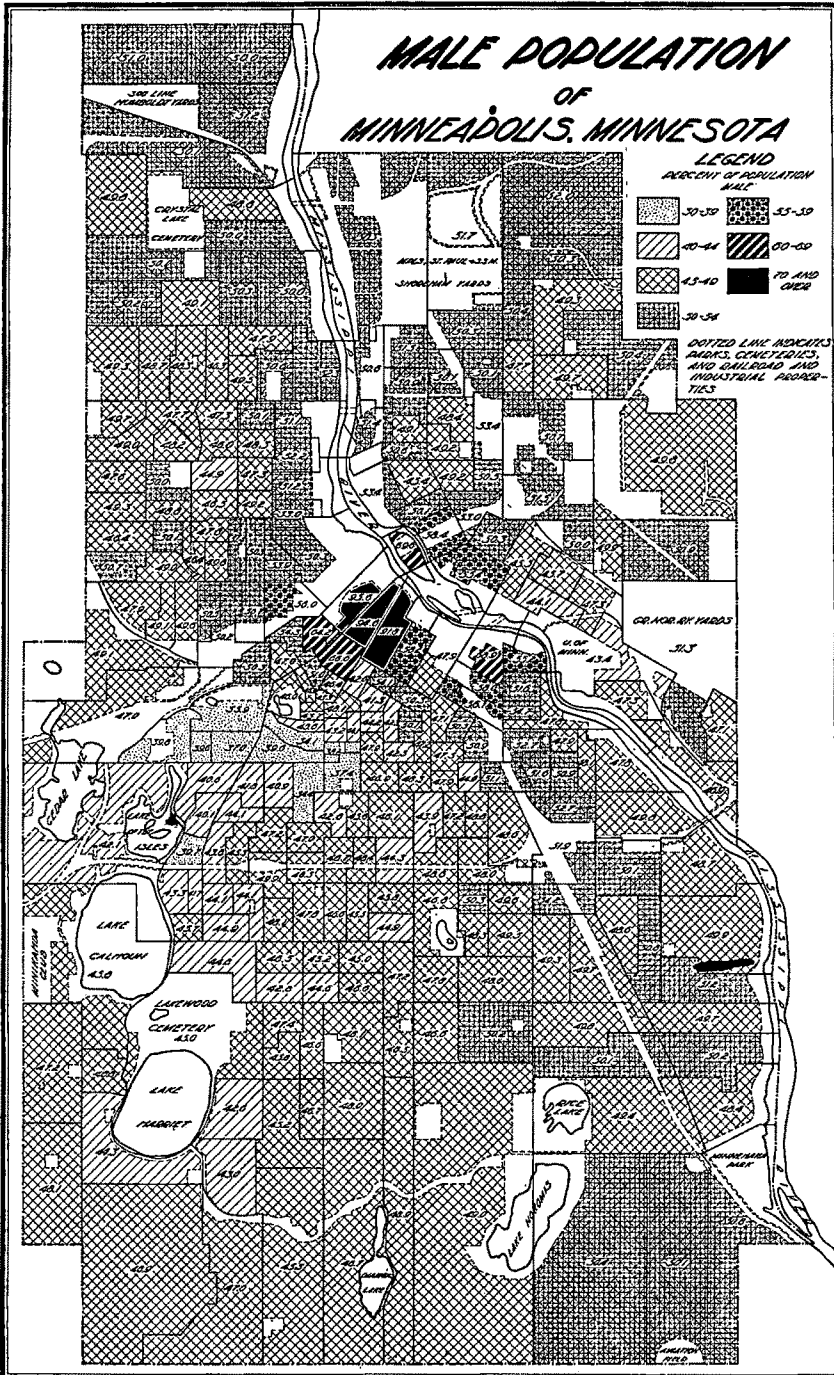
By examining Table I and Chart IV it will be observed that the trend during the thirty-two-year period, 1900-1931, inclusive, shows an upward movement which is especially marked during the past three years. The various oscillations in the suicide curve synchronize to a certain degree with important social and economic changes. During the period of the World War the curve dipped down in characteristic fashion, although there was no marked increase until two years later.<sup>8</sup> The highest points in the curve were reached in 1914

<sup>6</sup> Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925: An Ecological and Behavioristic Study*, University of Washington Publications in the Social Sciences (Seattle, Washington, 1928). In Seattle, as well as in Minneapolis, it was found that the suicide rates in the "marginal areas" were very high, whereas in the corresponding ecological area of Pittsburgh the rate of self-destruction was relatively much lower than in the downtown business and hotel district. The largest parts of the "marginal areas" in Seattle and Minneapolis are characteristically habitats of homeless men, while in Pittsburgh the largest section of the "marginal area" is inhabited by large populations of Negroes and immigrant groups, mainly Jews and Italians. In "Hobohemias," family life is non-existent and the denizens are, for the most part, adult, unmarried, migratory males, whereas in "blackbelts" and immigrant sections there is a good deal of family life, and the proportion of women and children is very high. The relationship between the suicide frequency and certain population characteristics for the 264 Enumeration districts was as follows: (1) suicide rate and percentage of population male:  $r = +.60 \pm .03$ ; (2) suicide rate and percentage of population 45 years of age and over:  $r = +.45 \pm .03$ ; (3) suicide rate and percentage of population foreign born white:  $r = +.24 \pm .04$ . In computing rates and coefficients based on Enumeration districts, proper adjustments were made for size of population.

<sup>7</sup> The city was divided into six zones by a series of concentric circles radiating out from the center of the "loop" and rates were computed for each zone. Zone I was circumscribed by a circle with a one-mile radius; Zone II with a two-mile radius; Zone III with a three-mile radius, and so on to the corporate limits of the city. The rates per 100,000 of population, fifteen years of age and over, for the six zones were as follows: Zone I, 95.5; Zone II, 31.5; Zone III, 21.8; Zone IV, 20.0; Zone V, 15.1; and Zone VI, 16.4. It will be seen that there is a tendency for the suicide rates to decrease more or less in direct proportion to the distance from the center of the city, with the apparent exception of the outermost zone which shows a slight increase over the contiguous zone.

<sup>8</sup> Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 26-29.

CHART III



and 1931 when the rate in both instances was 26.1 per 100,000 of population. Although economic conditions seem to be determinative, causal factors in suicide during certain periods, yet at other

TABLE I  
SUICIDE RATES PER 100,000 OF POPULATION FOR MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA,  
AND REGISTRATION AREA\*: 1900-1931, INCLUSIVE

Year	Minneapolis	U.S. Registration Area	Year	Minneapolis	U.S. Registration Area
1900.....	9.4	11.5	1916.....	20.1	14.2
1901.....	7.9	12.2	1917.....	17.7	13.4
1902.....	15.5	12.7	1918.....	16.2	12.2
1903.....	11.8	13.8	1919.....	15.6	11.4
1904.....	17.6	14.7	1920.....	18.5	10.2
1905.....	19.8	16.0	1921.....	17.6	12.5
1906.....	12.9	13.9	1922.....	15.8	11.8
1907.....	15.4	15.7	1923.....	15.2	11.5
1908.....	18.8	17.8	1924.....	17.8	12.1
1909.....	21.7	16.5	1925.....	25.3	12.1
1910.....	17.6	16.0	1926.....	21.2	12.8
1911.....	20.4	16.3	1927.....	18.0	13.3
1912.....	18.3	16.0	1928.....	18.6	13.6
1913.....	17.5	15.8	1929.....	25.3	14.0
1914.....	26.1	16.6	1930.....	22.5	15.6
1915.....	24.1	16.7	1931.....	26.1	†

SOURCES: Frederick L. Hoffman, *Suicide Problems* (Newark, New Jersey: Prudential Press, 1927), pp. 204-6, and pp. 8-9; special transcript furnished by the Division of Vital Statistics of the United States Census Bureau; records of the Minneapolis Health Department.  
\* In 1900 the Registration Area represented 40.5 per cent of the total population of the United States; in 1910 this proportion was 53.8 per cent, in 1920, 82.2 per cent, and in 1930, 95.7 per cent.  
† Data not available.

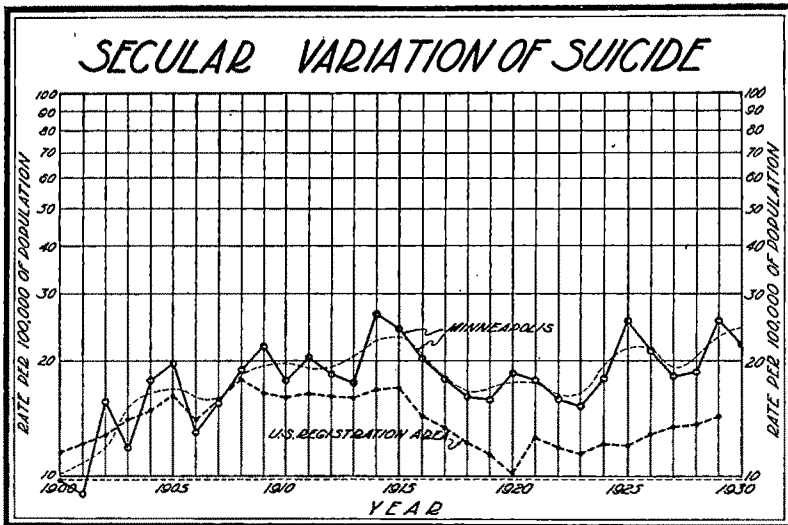
times their influence seems relatively negligible or, at least, not manifest.<sup>9</sup>

By referring to Table II and Chart V we find that there are more males than females who kill themselves. The ratio of male to female

<sup>9</sup> For the thirteen-year period, 1919-31, the relationship between the suicide rate for Minneapolis and a business index for the Northwest (comprising the Ninth Federal Reserve District) was  $r = -.21$ . The P.E. was  $\pm .08$ , although in a time series of this kind its significance, if any, is unknown. For a description of the index see Richard L. Kozelka, *Business Fluctuations in the Northwest*, University of Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute Bulletin (Minneapolis, April, 1932), Vol. I, No. 4, *passim*. Also see Dorothy Swaine Thomas, *Social Aspects of the Business Cycle* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1927), p. 115. Also see p. 73, p. 114, and pp. 159-60; Walter C. Hurlburt, "Prosperity, Depression, and the Suicide Rate," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXVII (March, 1932), 714-19.

suicides for the four-year period, 1928-32, was 3 to 1. The mean rate per 100,000 of population was 36.9 for males and 11.6 for females. A further examination of Table II will show that suicide is a phenomenon particularly characteristic of adulthood. Of the 444 suicides during this four-year period there was not a single one under fifteen years of age. Furthermore, it will be observed from Chart V that there is a definite tendency for suicide to increase *pari passu* with age, the acclivity being greater for males.<sup>10</sup>

CHART IV



It will be noticed from Table III that the suicide rate per 100,000 of population for the native-born is 19.0 and for the foreign-born, 48.6.<sup>11</sup>

By comparing the various foreign-born groups we find even a wide variability, ranging from 96.8 per 100,000 of population for the

<sup>10</sup> Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 29-34.

<sup>11</sup> In view of the fact that the different groups represent such a wide variation in terms of age and sex, the crude rates are not strictly comparable. The foreign-born population of Minneapolis is composed of 54 per cent males as compared with 47 per cent in the case of the native-born; 88 per cent of the foreign-born and only 72 per cent of the native-born are fifteen years of age and over.

Austrians<sup>12</sup> to 24.2 for the Norwegians. It will also be observed that the Germans, Swedes, and Poles exemplify unusually high suicidal frequencies.

TABLE II  
SUICIDES PER 100,000 OF POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX FOR  
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA (APRIL 1, 1928—  
APRIL 1, 1932)

AGE PERIOD	RATE PER 100,000 OF POPULATION		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total.....	23.9	36.9	11.6
0-4 years.....	0.0	0.0	0.0
5-9 years.....	0.0	0.0	0.0
10-14 years.....	0.0	0.0	0.0
15-19 years.....	5.4	5.8	5.0
20-24 years.....	11.0	14.6	8.2
25-29 years.....	23.2	30.2	17.6
30-34 years.....	22.6	35.4	11.4
35-44 years.....	33.2	53.2	12.9
45-54 years.....	43.1	60.6	24.9
55-64 years.....	51.9	82.3	21.2
65-84 years.....	69.5	118.2	23.2

SOURCES: Rates derived from Hennepin County coroner's death records, Minneapolis Health Department files, and statistics of population of the Fifteenth United States Census.

The Negroes had a rate of 29.9 per 100,000 of population for the same four-year period, 1928-32. This rate is extraordinarily high, since the suicide incidence for Negroes is very rarely more than 10.0 per 100,000 population.<sup>13</sup> During this same period there were two Chinese and one Indian who committed suicide.<sup>14</sup>

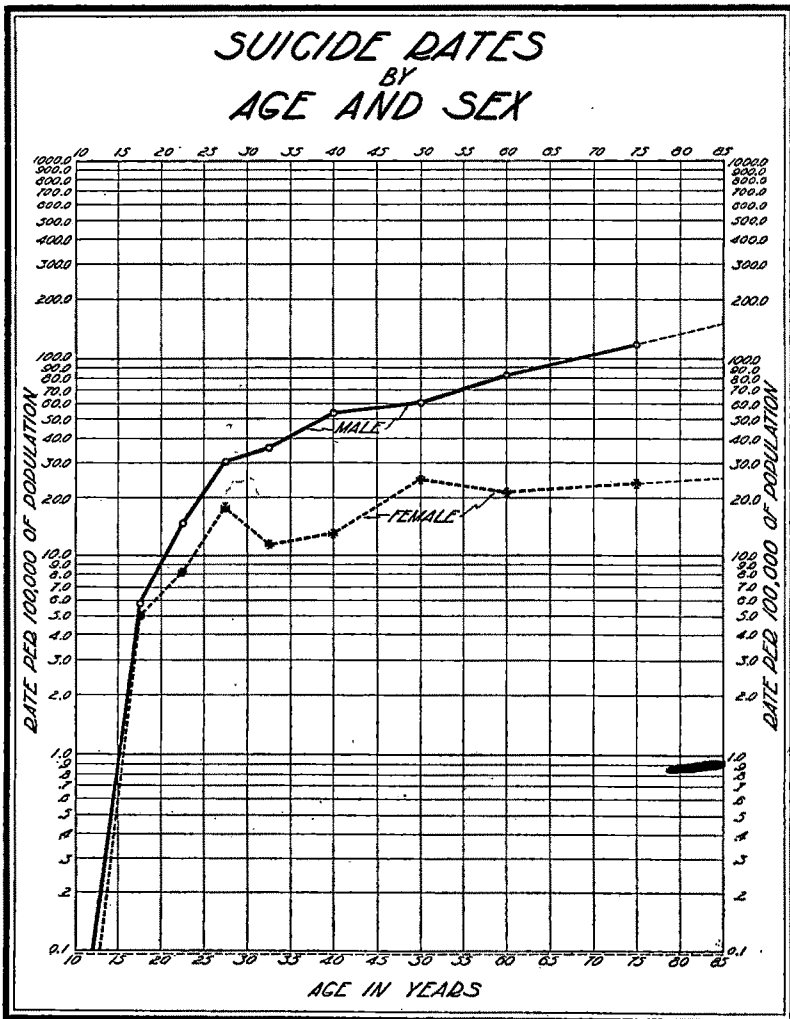
<sup>12</sup> In both Seattle and Pittsburgh the Austrians had the highest suicide rates. The suicide frequency in Austria is also relatively very high. Of the seventeen European countries for which statistics were available, for the triennial period, 1919-22, Austria ranked first. The mean rate per 100,000 of population was 24.5 (Gerhard Füllkrug, *Der Selbstmord in der Kriegs- und Nachkriegszeit* [Schwerin i. Mecklb.: Friedrich Bahn, 1927], pp. 17-20).

<sup>13</sup> In 1930 there was not a single southern state that showed a rate of more than 4.0 per 100,000 for Negroes, and in most instances the rates were less than 2.0 per 100,000. In the North, and especially in the larger cities, the suicidal frequency for Negroes tends to be higher. In Seattle the rate for Negroes was 23.0 per 100,000, while in Pittsburgh, it was 6.2. For a further discussion of these points see Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 34-39.

<sup>14</sup> Since the populations for these groups are so small, it would be misleading to compute rates. In 1930 there were 221 Chinese, 158 Indians, and 38 Japanese in the city of Minneapolis.

An examination of the statistics in Table IV will reveal the following pertinent facts. The suicide rate is 45.2 per 100,000 for the single males as compared to 40.8 for the married males, and 91.8 and 112.2,

CHART V



respectively, for the widowed and divorced males. On the other hand, we find that the rate of 16.4 per 100,000 for married females is much higher than the rate for single females which is 7.2. The rates

TABLE III

NATIVITY OF SUICIDES BY PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES FOR MINNEAPOLIS,  
MINNESOTA (APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

COUNTRY OF BIRTH	SUICIDES			POPULATION	SUICIDE RATE PER 100,000
	Both Sexes	Male	Female		
Total: Native and foreign-born....	444	333	111	464,356	23.9
Native-born.....	287	205	82	378,645	19.0
Foreign-born.....	157	128	29	80,834	48.6
Austria.....	5	4	1	1,292	96.8
Germany.....	17	12	5	5,969	71.2
Sweden.....	57	49	8	24,866	57.3
Poland.....	9	8	1	4,555	49.4
Denmark.....	4	3	1	2,418	41.3
England.....	4	2	2	2,453	40.8
Russia.....	5	5	0	4,846	25.8
Norway.....	15	13	2	15,492	24.2
All other countries....	19	14	1	.....	.....
Unclassified.....	15	14	1	.....	.....

SOURCES: Statistics of suicide tabulated from Hennepin County coroner's death records and files of the Minneapolis Department of Health; statistics of population taken from the Fifteenth United States Census.

TABLE IV

MARITAL CONDITION OF SUICIDES, FIFTEEN YEARS OF AGE AND  
OVER, BY SEX, FOR MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA  
(APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

MARITAL STATUS*	RATE PER 100,000 POPULATION		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total.....	48.6	72.5	24.7
Single.....	26.2	45.2	7.2
Married.....	28.6	40.8	16.4
Widowed.....	58.0	91.8	24.2
Divorced.....	81.5	112.2	50.8

SOURCES: Rates derived from data taken from the Hennepin County coroner's death records and Minneapolis Department of health files; statistics of population from the Fifteenth United States Census.

\* Out of the total of 444 cases there were 20 males and 1 female unclassified.

for the widowed and divorced females are 24.2 and 50.8 per 100,000 of population, respectively.<sup>15</sup>

TABLE V  
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF SUICIDES, FIFTEEN YEARS OF AGE AND  
OVER FOR MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, 1928-32

OCCUPATION OR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	SUICIDES			POPULATION			MEAN RATE PER 100,000 OF POPULATION		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total . . . . .	444	333	111	211,398	147,350	64,048	52.5	56.5	43.3
(1) Agriculture and animal husbandry . . . . .	14	14	.....	1,933	1,910	23	181.1	183.2	.....
(2) Extraction of minerals . . . . .	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(3) Manufacturing and mechanical industries . . . . .	91	90	1	54,219	45,618	8,601	42.0	49.3	2.9
(4) Forestry and fishing . . . . .	2	2	.....	145	145	.....	†	†	.....
(5) Transportation . . . . .	23	23	.....	16,357	14,574	1,783	35.2	39.5	.....
(6) Trade . . . . .	63	59	4	39,580	32,253	7,327	39.8	45.7	13.6
(7) Public service . . . . .	8	8	.....	2,808	2,739	69	71.2	73.0	.....
(8) Professional service . . . . .	18	14	4	18,917	9,326	9,591	23.8	37.5	10.4
(9) Domestic and personal service . . . . .	40	25	15	26,676	8,597	18,079	37.5	72.7	20.7
(10) Clerical occupations . . . . .	12	7	5	34,150	15,575	18,575	8.8	11.2	6.7
(11) Laborers* . . . . .	65	65	.....	16,613	16,613	.....	.....	97.8	.....
(12) Ungainfully occupied . . . . .	85	3	82	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Unknown . . . . .	23	23	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

SOURCE: Rates computed from data derived from Hennepin County coroner's death records, records of the Minneapolis Health Department, and United States Census population statistics.

\* "Laborers" include all purely unskilled manual occupations from all male occupational groups.

† Rates based on too small a population to be reliable.

Table V presents the suicides in Minneapolis during the four-year period, 1928-32, arranged according to a slightly modified classifica-

<sup>15</sup> It usually happens that the suicidal frequency is higher for the single than for the married, but exceptions to this rule do occur, especially in the case of females. In Seattle the rates for both single males and females were higher than for the married of the corresponding sexes, while in Pittsburgh the single males had only a slightly higher rate than married males and the single females had a much lower rate than married females. For a more complete discussion of the various points in this section, see Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 39-41.



tion of the main occupational groups of the United States Census Bureau.<sup>16</sup> For the male sex, those included under "agriculture and animal husbandry" have the highest rate with 183.2 per 100,000 of population, while those engaged as "laborers" have the next highest rate with 97.8. "Public service" ranks third, and "domestic and personal service," fourth, with rates of 73.0 and 72.7, respectively. "Clerical occupations" with 11.2 per 100,000 of population have the lowest rate, and "professional service" with a rate of 37.5 ranks second lowest. The rates for the female sex are uniformly much lower than for the male sex except in the case of group (9), "domestic and personal service," which has a rate of 20.7.<sup>17</sup>

From Table VI it will be noticed that Thursday is the most frequently chosen day for committing suicide in the city of Minneapolis, while Monday is chosen less often than any day of the week.<sup>18</sup> When each sex is considered separately, we find that Tuesday ranks highest for the males and Thursday, for the females. The day with the fewest male suicides is Saturday, while Sunday and Monday have the smallest number of female suicides.<sup>19</sup>

By referring to Table VII it will be seen that the highest point in the seasonal fluctuation of suicide is reached during the months of January and February.<sup>20</sup> The maximal months for the two sexes are not, however, identical. The maximum number of male suicides occurred in January and February, and the maximum number of

<sup>16</sup> In making comparisons of this kind for various occupations, it should be remembered that there are usually a number of concealed factors which must be taken into consideration, such as age, nativity, race, marital status, education, religion, and mobility (see *ibid.*, pp. 41-44).

<sup>17</sup> The rate for those engaged in "domestic and personal service" was 21.1 per 100,000 of population in Seattle and 19.0 in Pittsburgh. Likewise, several occupational groups for the males evidenced a marked parallelism for all three cities. "Agriculture and animal husbandry," "laborers," and "public service"—all had consistently high rates. On the other hand, the rates for "clerical occupations," "professional service," and "transportation" showed a wide variation for the three cities.

<sup>18</sup> It is usually on "blue Monday" when the largest percentage of people commit suicide, but both in Minneapolis and Pittsburgh, for some reason or other, Thursday is the day most often preferred.

<sup>19</sup> Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 49-52.

<sup>20</sup> It often happens that the maximum number of suicides occur during the spring of the year. May showed the highest frequency of suicide for the city of Pittsburgh, but October ranked highest for Seattle (see *ibid.*, pp. 44-47).

females suicides, in August and October. The months during which the fewest people destroyed their lives were September and Decem-

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF SUICIDES ACCORDING TO DAYS OF THE WEEK FOR  
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA (APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

DAY OF WEEK	NUMBER			PER CENT		
	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males	Females
Total.....	444	333	111	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sunday.....	54	43	11	12.2	12.9	9.9
Monday.....	52	41	11	11.7	12.3	9.9
Tuesday.....	67	51	16	15.0	15.3	14.4
Wednesday.....	61	48	13	13.8	14.4	11.7
Thursday.....	72	49	23	16.2	14.7	20.7
Friday.....	68	50	18	15.3	15.0	16.3
Saturday.....	54	39	15	12.2	11.8	13.5
Unknown.....	16	12	4	3.6	3.6	3.6

SOURCES: Figures derived from files of the Minneapolis Department of Health and Hennepin County coroner's office.

TABLE VII

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION OF SUICIDES IN MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA  
(APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

MONTH*	NUMBER			PER CENT		
	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males	Females
Total.....	444.0	333.0	111.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
January.....	44.2	38.3	5.9	9.9	11.5	5.3
February.....	48.6	41.0	7.5	10.9	12.3	6.8
March.....	30.4	24.6	5.9	6.8	7.4	5.3
April.....	35.5	27.4	8.2	8.0	8.1	7.4
May.....	36.3	29.5	6.9	8.2	8.8	6.2
June.....	40.6	28.4	12.2	9.1	8.5	11.0
July.....	31.4	23.6	7.9	7.1	7.0	7.1
August.....	41.2	26.5	14.7	9.3	7.9	13.2
September.....	26.4	19.3	7.2	5.9	5.8	6.5
October.....	38.3	22.6	15.7	8.6	6.8	14.2
November.....	31.4	27.4	4.1	7.1	8.2	3.7
December.....	31.4	21.6	9.8	7.1	6.5	8.8
Unknown.....	9.0	4.0	5.0	2.0	1.2	4.5

SOURCES: Data derived from records of the Minneapolis Department of Health and files of the Hennepin County coroner.

\* Equalized months.

ber for the males, and January, March, and November for the females.

An examination of Table VIII will reveal the fact that asphyxia is the most prevalent means of self-destruction in the city of Minneapolis.<sup>21</sup> Firearms ranks second; poison, third; hanging and strangu-

TABLE VIII

MEANS AND METHODS OF COMMITTING SUICIDE FOR MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA  
(APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

MEANS OR METHOD	NUMBER			PER CENT		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total .....	444	333	111	100.0	100.0	100.0
Asphyxia .....	160	101	59	36.0	30.3	53.2
Firearms .....	97	90	7	21.8	27.0	6.3
Poison .....	58	39	19	13.1	11.7	17.1
Carbolic acid .....	28	23	5	6.3	6.9	4.5
Lysol .....	13	7	6	2.9	2.1	5.4
Strychnine .....	5	4	1	1.1	1.2	0.9
Cyanide of potassium .....	3	1	2	0.7	0.3	1.8
Corrosive sublimate .....	1	.....	1	0.2	.....	0.9
All other .....	8	4	4	1.9	1.2	3.6
Hanging and strangulation .....	53	48	5	11.9	14.4	4.5
Drowning .....	37	24	13	8.3	7.2	11.7
Cutting and piercing instruments ..	18	16	2	4.0	4.8	1.8
Jumping from high places .....	14	10	4	3.3	3.1	3.6
Crushing .....	1	1	.....	.2	0.3	.....
All other .....	6	4	2	1.4	1.2	1.8

SOURCES: Tabulated from original records at the office of the Hennepin County coroner and Minneapolis Department of Health.

lation, fourth; and drowning, fifth. When we compare each sex separately, it will be observed that there is a wide discrepancy in the

<sup>21</sup> For Seattle, Pittsburgh, and for the Registration Area as a whole firearms rank first among the means and methods used in committing suicide. However, in New York City, for example, like in Minneapolis, asphyxia is the most widely preferred method of killing one's self. In New York City for the year 1931, the following means and methods, arranged according to their numerical importance, were used: asphyxia, 46.0 per cent; jumping from high places, 14.7 per cent; hanging and strangulation, 13.9 per cent; poison, 9.7 per cent; firearms, 7.4 per cent; cutting and piercing instruments, 4.1 per cent; drowning, 2.3 per cent, and crushing, 1.7 per cent (see "Suicides in New York City," *Weekly Bulletin*, XXI [Department of Health, City of New York, July 2, 1932], 203).

popularity of the several methods used. In the case of male suicides, firearms, hanging and strangulation, and cutting and piercing instruments are much more important than for female suicides, whereas poison and drowning are relatively more prevalent for females.

In comparing the suicide rates of the 93 largest American cities with a population of 100,000 or more in 1930, we find that Minneapolis ranks fifteenth along with Los Angeles, California. On the other hand, St. Paul, sister city of Minneapolis, ranks approximately seventieth, as do Grand Rapids, Michigan, and Tulsa, Oklahoma.<sup>22</sup> A thorough examination of Table IX will reveal the fact that the suicidal tendency among these cities manifests a strikingly large range, with San Diego at one extreme with 43.6, and Somerville at the other with a rate of 4.8 per 100,000 of population.<sup>23</sup> What is the factor or factors that account for these widely disparate rates? Many attempts have been made to ascertain the relationship of suicide to such variables as climate, race, religion, health, etc., for American cities, but no really significant concurrence so far has been observed.<sup>24</sup> However, there seems to be a definite relationship between a high suicide incidence and a high rate of population mobility.<sup>25</sup>

<sup>22</sup> This disparity in the suicide rate between Minneapolis and St. Paul is quite characteristic. For the eleven-year period, 1920-30, inclusive, the mean suicide rate for Minneapolis was 19.6 and for St. Paul, 13.6. During this entire period St. Paul did not surpass Minneapolis in the suicide rate a single time, although in 1923 and 1927 there was less than one point difference.

<sup>23</sup> There seems to be a certain degree of constancy in the suicide rate for various localities. If we take the fifteen cities with a population of 100,000 or more in 1920 that ranked highest in the amount of suicide during the two-year period, 1919-20, and make similar comparisons of the same cities, for the two-year period, 1929-30, we find that fourteen out of the fifteen cities still hold much the same relative position for the latter period. It is a well-known fact, for example, that all the larger Pacific Coast cities show a comparatively high suicide frequency. In like manner some cities exemplify consistently low rates, but not to the same degree.

<sup>24</sup> Cf. John Rice Miner, "Suicide and Its Relation to Climatic and Other Factors," *American Journal of Hygiene*, "Monographic Series," No. 2 (1922), pp. 72-112; and Ruth Shonle Cavan, *Suicide* (University of Chicago Press, 1928), pp. 25-55.

<sup>25</sup> For example, among the twenty-five largest American cities in 1920 the relationship between a mobility index (percentage of population of each city born in some other state) and the suicide rate was significantly high [ $\rho = +.60 \pm .088$  ( $r = +.618 \pm .083$ )]. For a more complete discussion of this point see Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 52-56.

From Table X<sup>26</sup> it will be seen that the causal factor with the highest relative frequency is "physical disorders," with 39.8 per cent;

TABLE IX

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF SUICIDE: RATES PER 100,000 OF POPULATION FOR  
THE 93 AMERICAN CITIES WITH A POPULATION OF 100,000 OR  
MORE IN 1930 FOR THE TWO-YEAR PERIOD, 1929-30

City	Rate	City	Rate	City	Rate
San Diego, Calif.....	43.6	Canton, Ohio.....	19.5	Memphis, Tenn.....	16.2
San Francisco, Calif.....	40.0	Columbus, Ohio.....	19.4	Salt Lake City, Utah.....	16.0
Seattle, Wash.....	31.7	Richmond, Va.....	19.4	Norfolk, Va.....	15.8
Omaha, Neb.....	29.4	Milwaukee, Wis.....	19.3	Albany, N.Y.....	15.7
Portland, Ore.....	29.3	New York, N.Y.....	19.3	Pittsburgh, Pa.....	14.9
Spokane, Wash.....	29.0	Houston, Tex.....	18.6	Boston, Mass.....	14.8
Oakland, Calif.....	25.9	Camden, N.J.....	18.5	Syracuse, N.Y.....	14.6
Tacoma, Wash.....	25.7	Fort Worth, Tex.....	18.4	Grand Rapids, Mich.....	14.2
South Bend, Ind.....	25.0	Fort Wayne, Ind.....	18.3	St. Paul, Minn.....	14.2
St. Louis, Mo.....	24.8	Baltimore, Md.....	18.0	Tulsa, Okla.....	14.2
Kansas City, Mo.....	24.5	Gary, Ind.....	17.9	Bridgeport, Conn.....	14.0
Denver, Colo.....	24.3	Jacksonville, Fla.....	17.8	Buffalo, N.Y.....	13.8
Tampa, Fla.....	24.2	Dallas, Tex.....	17.7	New Bedford, Mass.....	13.8
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	23.9	Evansville, Ind.....	17.6	Knoxville, Tenn.....	13.2
Los Angeles, Calif.....	23.8	Peoria, Ill.....	17.6	Wilmington, Del.....	13.1
Minneapolis, Minn.....	23.8	Wichita, Kan.....	17.6	Providence, R.I.....	12.5
El Paso, Tex.....	23.4	Youngstown, Ohio.....	17.6	Springfield, Mass.....	12.3
Reading, Pa.....	23.4	Elizabeth, N.J.....	17.5	Akron, Ohio.....	12.2
Trenton, N.J.....	22.7	Nashville, Tenn.....	17.5	Worcester, Mass.....	11.8
Washington, D.C.....	22.5	Philadelphia, Pa.....	17.5	Flint, Mich.....	11.5
Lynn, Mass.....	22.0	New Haven, Conn.....	17.2	Cambridge, Mass.....	11.0
Miami, Fla.....	21.7	New Orleans, La.....	17.2	Oklahoma City, Okla.....	10.5
Newark, N.J.....	21.4	Rochester, N.Y.....	17.2	Hartford, Conn.....	10.4
Indianapolis, Ind.....	21.0	San Antonio, Tex.....	17.1	Utica, N.Y.....	10.3
Paterson, N.J.....	20.9	Chicago, Ill.....	17.0	Jersey City, N.J.....	10.1
Erie, Pa.....	20.7	Louisville, Ky.....	16.6	Chattanooga, Tenn.....	9.6
Cleveland, Ohio.....	20.1	Detroit, Mich.....	16.5	Yonkers, N.Y.....	9.3
Long Beach, Calif.....	20.4	Kansas City, Kan.....	16.4	Scranton, Pa.....	7.7
Atlanta, Ga.....	20.0	Toledo, Ohio.....	16.3	Lowell, Mass.....	7.5
Duluth, Minn.....	19.7	Birmingham, Ala.....	16.2	Fall River, Mass.....	7.4
Des Moines, Iowa.....	19.6	Dayton, Ohio.....	16.2	Somerville, Mass.....	4.8

SOURCE: Rates derived from population statistics of the Fifteenth United States Census and suicide data furnished by Dr. T. F. Murphy of the United States Census Bureau.

"nervous and mental disorders" with 20.5 per cent ranks second, and "affectional difficulties" with 17.6 per cent ranks third. Next in

<sup>26</sup> It is very obvious that the figures in Table X possess certain inaccuracies and limitations. In the first place, it is often impossible to ascertain the real cause of suicide, for the person who destroys his life may carry the secret with him, and even the most intimate associates may not have the least idea about the motive. Second, even if the facts are known by friends and relatives, they may be suppressed or deliberately distorted so that an entirely falsified death record is the result. Third, prejudices, ignorance, indifference, or other handicaps of the observer may invalidate any explanations or conclusions that might be made. Fourth, it must always be remembered in making observations of behavior of this kind that the most conspicuous cause is not necessarily the most important one. Fifth, in examining records of suicide one should realize that

TABLE X  
 "CAUSES" OF SUICIDE: MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA  
 (APRIL 1, 1928—APRIL 1, 1932)

CAUSE	NUMBER			PER CENT		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total . . . . .	375	268	107	100.0	100.0	100.0
Physical disorders . . . . .	149	120	29	39.7	44.8	27.2
"Poor health" . . . . .	83	67	16	55.7	55.8	55.2
Alcoholism . . . . .	38	34	4	25.5	28.3	13.8
Venereal diseases . . . . .	7	4	3	4.7	3.4	10.4
Tuberculosis . . . . .	4	3	1	2.7	2.5	3.4
Menopause . . . . .	3	.....	3	2.0	.....	10.4
Influenza . . . . .	2	2	.....	1.4	1.7	.....
All other . . . . .	12	10	2	8.0	8.3	6.8
"Nervous" and "mental" disorders . . . . .	77	45	32	20.5	16.8	29.9
Affectional difficulties . . . . .	66	32	34	17.6	12.0	31.8
Conjugal incompatibility . . . . .	27	13	14	41.0	40.6	41.2
Disappointed in love . . . . .	14	12	2	21.2	37.5	5.9
Death of spouse . . . . .	7	3	4	10.6	9.5	11.8
Death of children . . . . .	3	.....	3	4.5	.....	8.8
Death of other relatives . . . . .	3	1	2	4.5	3.1	5.9
Divorce . . . . .	6	2	4	9.1	6.2	11.8
All other . . . . .	6	1	5	9.1	3.1	14.6
Economic difficulties . . . . .	57	54	3	15.2	20.2	2.8
Unemployed . . . . .	32	31	1	56.2	57.5	33.3
"Financial troubles" . . . . .	25	23	2	43.8	42.5	66.7
Delinquency . . . . .	9	5	4	2.4	1.9	2.7
Homicide . . . . .	3	2	1	33.3	40.0	25.0
All other . . . . .	6	3	3	66.7	60.0	75.0
Ill-defined causes . . . . .	17	12	5	4.6	4.4	4.8
"Tired of life" . . . . .	9	7	2	52.9	58.4	40.0
All other . . . . .	8	5	3	47.1	41.6	60.0
Undetermined* . . . . .	109	87	22	.....	.....	.....

SOURCE: Data derived from Hennepin County coroner's death records. The figures in this table represent merely the frequency of certain factors associated with self-destruction and are presumably of direct causal significance.

\* Not included in totals.

the coroner is mainly interested in establishing the fact of suicide and not circumstances or causes leading up to the act. Furthermore, it will be seen that the figures in Table X are not "statistics" in the real sense of that term, because they do not represent rigidly defined units. "Financial difficulties," "disappointment in love," and the like may have a multitude of implications. Again, the figures represent merely the frequency of external factors which are associated with and presumably conducive to personal disorganization and suicide.

order is "economic difficulties" with 15.2 per cent. "Ill-defined causes" and "delinquency" show a percentage of 4.2 and 2.4, respectively. A further analysis of the figures in Table X indicates that the various factors are not in the same proportion for both men and women. "Physical disorders" and "economic difficulties" show a higher frequency among male suicides than do "nervous and mental disorders" and "affectional difficulties" which predominate among women.<sup>27</sup>

<sup>27</sup> For a discussion of the suicide process and the meaning of these various causal factors in suicide see Ruth Shonle Cavan, *op. cit.*, pp. 148-305; and Calvin F. Schmid, *Suicides in Seattle, 1914 to 1925*, pp. 68-85.

## A MOVEMENT TO PRESERVE SOCIAL SCIENCE SOURCE MATERIALS

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### ABSTRACT

The inadequacy of primary sources caused the Social Science Research Council to make the enlargement, improvement, and preservation of research material one of its major objectives in 1929. To attain this objective three of its committees have carried on a variety of activities: the Joint Committee on Materials for Research set up in co-operation with the American Council of Learned Societies; the Committee on Social Statistics; and the Committee on Public Administration. The last-mentioned Committee launched a plan to preserve the basic social science source materials in each state, particularly the public documents and related material, by selecting and designating State Document Centers. This project is now being furthered by the Public Documents Committee of the American Library Association. To develop the project into an active movement to preserve certain basic types of material, state committees of scholars and librarians are being set up. The types of material to be included in the collecting and preserving activities will vary according to opportunity, but should include: the official publications and archival material of state and local governments; the publications and archives of state and local non-governmental social and civic organizations; newspapers; publications and archives of educational and religious institutions and agencies; the economic materials—of business, industry, labor and agriculture; and biographical and local history materials. These categories represent largely non-copyright, non-trade, and fugitive materials that have been neglected by many libraries.

### I. THE SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL AND THE PRESERVATION OF SOURCE MATERIALS

The recent illuminating report on *The Problem of Sociological Source Materials* by Stuart A. Rice and Hugh Penn Brinton, Jr.,<sup>1</sup> and the plans for preserving the source materials for the social sciences outlined below reveal a common underlying purpose. Up to completing its sixth year of work, the Social Science Research Council made the redefinition of its objectives the central subject of its annual meeting in August, 1929. Up to that time the Council had devoted itself largely to: (1) the study of scientific method as applied to the social sciences; (2) the sifting, developing, and financing of research projects; (3) the co-ordination of existing research programs through conferences, and planning of its staff; (4) making small grants-in-aid to bring to completion promising pieces of research for which funds were otherwise not available; (5) the development of research per-

<sup>1</sup> *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXVI (1932), No. 3, 204-25.



sonnel through fellowships; (6) additional special activities such as the development of *Social Science Abstracts*.<sup>2</sup>

In its varied research activities over a period of six years the Council had discovered that "the enlargement, improvement, and preservation of the materials for research," particularly the primary sources, constituted one of the most urgent problems that called for attention. Hence, it made this one of its major objectives for the future.

In this emphasis upon data there is reflected a definite reorientation among social scientists. They have made a new attack upon their problems especially since the World War. They have realized that the older theoretical approaches were not sufficiently grounded in facts to give the sort of understanding of our social problems that is essential to social control. Research, meaning thereby inductive study of the facts and the records pertaining to actual economic, cultural, and political processes, has become the keynote. Research, from this point of view, means the use of primary data and source materials in the search for sound principles, rather than a recasting of secondary materials. *It means reference to data rather than authority.* But when such reference is attempted, it is found unfortunately that the present need for adequate social data has outrun the available resources. These are all too often scattered, unco-ordinated and not readily accessible, or their existence and location are even unknown to scholars. This is true despite America's extraordinary investment in research materials and the expansion of libraries in this century.

In view of this situation, the Council outlined the following specific policy and program of action:

Since scientific progress in all fields is conditioned by the existence of a constantly enlarging body of research materials and by its availability to investigators, one of the primary duties of the Council is to promote such objects and to concern itself with the improvement and preservation of research data. In carrying out these purposes the following courses of action are appropriate:

- A. Initiating and participating in plans for making more comparable and more widely serviceable the classifications of social and economic data, for making more precise the significance of this data, and for otherwise improving such records.

<sup>2</sup> Social Science Research Council. *Annual Reports* 1926 through 1928-29.

- B. Helping to lay out a plan for the nation-wide development and co-ordination of existing archival collections and for the building up of new research collections along special lines at strategic scholarly and geographical centers.
- C. Initiating and participating in plans for constructing union finding lists and calendars of the resources of existing research libraries, with particular reference to their social data, so as to make them more available to scholars.
- D. Initiating and participating in plans to discover, select, edit, publish, or otherwise reproduce basic data in the social sciences, which are difficult of access to students or likely to perish.
- E. Calling to the attention of individuals and of governmental, business, and other institutions and agencies the importance of preserving their records for future analysis and study.
- F. Encouraging the adoption and widespread use of those varieties of paper and other materials used in the making of records, which promise a maximum durability.
- G. Initiating, encouraging and participating in plans to develop the research uses of historical, industrial and social museums; and encouraging the building up of new collections with these purposes in mind.<sup>3</sup>

Since this objective of enlarging, improving, and preserving research materials was projected in 1929 by the Social Science Research Council it has had three committees that have concerned themselves with one or more phases of the project: the Joint Committee on Materials for Research set up, in co-operation with the American Council of Learned Societies, a Committee on Social Statistics and a Committee on Public Administration. This paper is primarily concerned with the State Document Center Plan that emanated from the Committee on Public Administration. The activities of the other two committees will be indicated only in brief.

Among other activities the Joint Committee on Materials for Research has concerned itself with: (1) A "Survey of activities of American agencies, such as collecting, organizing, preserving, indexing, cataloguing and publishing of research materials." This was done with the hope of bringing to light unnecessary omissions or duplications as well as discovering what was being done to provide material for research. This survey was carried on by Franklin F. Holbrook under the supervision of Solon J. Buck, the former chair-

<sup>3</sup> The Social Science Research Council, *Annual Report, 1928-29*, pp. 44-45.

man of the Committee. A report was published early in 1932.<sup>4</sup> (2) Robert C. Binkley, the present chairman of the Committee, has made a study of the methods and equipment for reproducing research materials by photographic processes. Upon this subject a preliminary report was also issued late in 1931.<sup>5</sup> (3) N.S.B. Gras, in co-operation with constituent societies, is studying categories of materials useful for research in the social sciences and humanities, especially with a view of discovering those not adequately cared for at present. Other important problems with which the Joint Committee has been concerned are: (a) durability of paper and ink; (b) policy of libraries in indexing and preserving newspapers; (c) a survey of state and local archives; (d) the practice of the federal government in the destruction of archival material; (e) a survey of manuscript and other source material relating to Virginia; and (f) an inventory of manuscript material for American history and literature.

The Committee on Social Statistics<sup>6</sup> (with which has been merged the Council's Committee on the Utilization of Unpublished Social Data) is concerned with the improvement and preservation of statistical data for the social sciences. Among the activities of these two committees the following deserve mention here: (1) A project to standardize public welfare statistics. (2) In co-operation with the American Statistical Association an effort has been made to develop more adequately the task of critical evaluation and planning of the records which provide basic data for statistical researches. (3) In case of the Bureau of the Census the Committees have sought two things: to promote certain urgent immediate objectives and to consider broad policies with reference to the future development of the Bureau. Among immediate objectives the committees have: (a) studied the Bureau's unpublished data that are at present unutilized by researchers;<sup>7</sup> (b) prepared a sample index and classification of

<sup>4</sup> Franklin F. Holbrook, *Survey of Activities of American Agencies in Relation to Materials for Research in the Social Sciences and the Humanities*. Social Science Research Council, New York, and the American Council of Learned Societies, Washington, 1932. Pp. xiv+165+index.

<sup>5</sup> Robert C. Binkley, *Methods of Reproducing Research Materials* (Ann Arbor: Edwards Bros., 1931), pp. viii+139.

<sup>6</sup> Robert E. Chaddock, *Chairman*; Stuart A. Rice, *Secretary*.

<sup>7</sup> C. Luther Fry, "Making Use of Census Data," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, XXV (1930), 129-38.

these unpublished as well as of the published data; (c) sought to procure the adoption by the Bureau of a policy of indexing its published and unpublished data and source materials—especially on population, unemployment, the family and vital statistics; (d) sought to determine which types of unpublished materials the Bureau should preserve. This problem was acute because the removal of the Bureau from its old quarters in a temporary building to permanent, but smaller, quarters in the new Commerce Building necessitated the destruction of a considerable quantity of working material incident to tabulation.

In considering policies as to the future functions of the Bureau of the Census the Committee on Social Statistics is interested in the extension of the usefulness of the Bureau: (a) by publishing special bulletins which would make local data more available to schools, newspapers and other local agencies; (b) by preparing studies on special problems on which census data are available; (c) by setting up a service function which would include working space for outside investigators, a technical library, and advisory personnel; (d) by improving the methods of enumeration.

The Committee is also working with the Library of Congress and constituent social science associations to devise a plan for more adequate collecting and indexing of statistical sources by the Library of Congress. This effort will possibly culminate in the establishment of a "Chair" or a Division of Records and Statistics.

In selecting ways in which it might further the development of research in the field of government, the Council's Committee on Public Administration, under the chairmanship of Leonard D. White, launched a "State Public Document Center Plan." This plan provided for the designation of one or more libraries in each state that seemed peculiarly qualified and that were willing to undertake to collect, organize, and preserve as complete a file as possible of public documents and related material originating in that state. The plan did not seek to place any limitation on the collecting activities of any library but sought to establish a nation-wide network of state document centers that had assumed responsibility for collecting and preserving these primary source materials. By means of field work in most states an attempt was made to find one or two libraries that had already established as a part of their policy the collection of the pri-

mary source materials of their respective states—especially the official publications originating within the state. Attention was also given to finding such libraries, if possible, in strategic scholarly and geographic centers.

At the time of the meeting of the American Library Association in New Orleans in April, 1932, the Council had designated one or two libraries in each state as state document centers.<sup>8</sup> The Council felt, however, that the development of an active nation-wide movement to collect and preserve the primary source materials in each state was essentially a library function. Hence, it requested the American Library Association to take over the project for further development. This was done, and the project was turned over to its Public Documents Committee, with the understanding that under its leadership an attempt should be made to define the various types of research materials that should be preserved for the social sciences, and that such steps should be taken as would promote an active movement for the collection and preservation of such materials in those states where this seemed especially necessary.

## II. DEFINITIONS OF CATEGORIES

In the preliminary work that has been done in launching this project, it has become clear that, if the movement to preserve the basic sources for the social sciences is to acquire real vitality, it is necessary that the chief categories or types of source materials that are worthy of preservation be more clearly defined. Obviously, the diversity and type of source materials that exist vary with state and locality, and it will require careful study by social scientists and librarians to determine what is extant and where, and to plan the most suitable places for concentrating and preserving these materials. It is too early to give definitions with any degree of completeness, and those that one might give must be treated as suggestions rather than as a blueprint for action. This is, after all, a voluntary movement, and state document centers should feel at liberty to engage in those activities which seem most worthwhile in view of local resources and needs, but there are certain types of materials that the social scientists of the future will need.

<sup>8</sup> For a list of the state document centers see *Proceedings of the American Library Association* XXV (1930), 129-38.

First, there are the official published documents of the state. In the main, this category is fairly well defined. A good (though incomplete) exhibit of it is to be found in the *Monthly Check List of State Publications*. These documents have held a central place in the selection of state document centers. Full documentation would include (1) executive messages and proclamations, (2) legislative and judicial activities, (3) administrative functions, and (4) special research and commission reports.

In many states, especially the New England states, the collection and preservation of official publications of state governments has been no difficult task, partly because the law requires that they be deposited in the state library and partly because of close contact between the state library and a centralized printing agency. In some states other methods are employed as a supplementary aid. For example, the Indiana State Library checks the printing requisitions of the state printer at regular intervals to assure completeness of its acquisitions. But more than that is required. In many states printing is not centralized, and in nearly all states there are occasionally special commissions with printing funds. Then there are always certain reports of which very limited editions are issued, the supply of which is immediately exhausted; or again, occasionally important reports are suppressed shortly after issue.

In addition to the official publications of the state, there are, back of these published reports and supplementing them at many points, the archives,<sup>9</sup> valuable manuscripts, maps, departmental and executive records, etc. In most states these can perhaps not all be collected in one place, but it is desirable that those that are most significant in the history of the state should be indexed, and their preservation should receive intelligent, systematic attention. The most important state archival material of general interest should, however, be selected, edited and reproduced. In some states responsibility for organization and preservation of the state archival material has been definitely placed in the hands of a department of archives and history, with a trained historian in charge.

<sup>9</sup> The Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Commission has developed definite standards in the field of public archives. It has published a useful manual on *The Preservation of Local Archives: A Guide For Public Officials*. Washington, D.C., 1932, pp. 16.

A second type of documentary source material consists of the archives and publications of semi-governmental and non-governmental state organizations<sup>10</sup> such as committees of political parties, chambers of commerce, state welfare bodies, state bar and press associations, farm bureaus, religious, fraternal, and other organizing, reform, or clearing-house agencies. These organizations frequently play a more important rôle in the development of states, by mobilizing public opinion or promoting legislative or administrative changes, than the official governmental machinery. Hence their publications and archives should be preserved.

Third, local county and city official publications and records of importance should also be preserved. In some New England states one finds a model situation. Local governmental bodies are required by law to publish and to deposit their annual reports in the state library. In addition, many local administrative and executive bodies—city councils and township boards—have placed with the state historical society or state library their original old journals. George S. Godard, State Librarian in Connecticut secured the enactment of a law under which the State Library photostats such local official records and retains either the original or a copy in the State Library. This is an ideal arrangement. In states where this goal cannot be achieved, it is desirable to index the significant local records that cover important developments in the history of the state, and to interest local authorities in their preservation. In so far as county and city administrative reports are published, these should be collected in strategic places for research.

Fourth, local non-governmental or semi-governmental agencies, civic and social, issue a great deal of valuable source material—annual reports, special investigations, and a wealth of fugitive material. The case-histories of family and child welfare societies, as well as the archives and proceedings of boards of social agencies are particularly important in social research dealing with city growth, personality, and community problems.

Fifth, considerable emphasis has been and should be placed upon

<sup>10</sup> A useful directory to many of these state agencies has recently been issued by the Public Administration Clearing House, *Organizations in the Field of Public Administration: A Directory*. Chicago, 1932. Pp. 203.

newspapers. In small cities and rural communities they are no poor substitute for public documents, since they frequently represent the only published records of political and governmental activity and of the local agricultural, social and cultural life of the community. In most states one finds a working collection of local newspapers in state or historical society library. Such collections should be carefully preserved. Their usefulness could be enhanced for research by doing what Virginia is doing, namely, preparing a check-list of newspaper files in local newspaper offices and libraries. Such a check-list helps to co-ordinate existing resources, and frequently enables a scholar to gain access to volumes that complete broken files in library collections.

Sixth, the records of colleges and universities, including old textbooks, catalogues, research reports, the minutes of their executive and administrative bodies, records of student health departments, of physical education departments, and of mental tests or other measurements of students, and the records of alumni, are worthy of preservation.

Seventh, records and publications of religious organizations—city, county, and state—including yearbooks, archives, and newspapers or magazines of denominational groups, sermons, letters and diaries of preachers—should be preserved because of their value for religious social history. The New Hampshire State Historical Society has collected a large number of original church journals, containing the minutes of local parishes in that state. Godard's photostats of such minutes and their preservation in a central place is even more laudable.

Eighth, records of the industrial, financial, and agricultural activities in the community should be preserved. Economic and business periodicals, house organs, annual reports of corporations, financial audits of banks and investment houses, and the records of old important business firms and industries, plantation and farm records and ledgers are all precious research resources. In this category one would also include the publications of manufacturers, labor and commercial organizations, including the convention proceedings of various commercial and industrial groups.

Ninth, significant biographical material should be preserved. The



minimum that should be attempted in each state would be the preservation of genealogies, directories, and biographical material, including family papers—diaries, letters—photographs and portraits of those personalities that have shaped the history of the community, state, or nation.

Tenth, local histories, maps, motion-picture films of cultural or historical interest, and atlases that represent original and worthwhile research relating to local conditions or cultures, should be included.

Still another type of material should be kept in mind, although it is chiefly of interest to the humanities—American literature and its sources. Published and unpublished poems, essays, novels, and the records of publishers, actors and writers, and theatrical managers should be preserved.

Several observations are pertinent in regard to the categories described above. First, in the main they represent material that is not copyrighted and that is not handled by commercial dealers. The absence of this safeguard of commercial value when issued means that it does not find its way into libraries through the well-organized copyright and book marketing machinery, but only through intelligent, prompt, and assiduous acquisition work.

Second, much of the material is fugitive material and of an ephemeral character. The agencies that issue it are chiefly concerned with its immediate popular consumption, rather than distribution for permanent research. Their purpose is to influence the community now, and editions are limited and rarely indexed, either promptly or with any degree of completeness.

Third, field work in a sufficient number of representative states justifies the generalization that in many states some of the most vital categories described above are sadly neglected, even by libraries and historical societies that one would assume existed for their collection, organization, and preservation. In general the official publications of states represent the category that is best preserved, but that cannot be said of the official archival material in many states. On the other hand, the most-neglected categories are the second, fourth, and eighth discussed above. Many state libraries and historical societies do not seem to have had a vital contact with social scientists in re-

cent years and have therefore failed to sense the importance of the categories referred to.

Fourth, without venturing into prophecy, there is good evidence that in America we have come to the end of an era. It is desirable that the period that is closing be as completely documented as possible. In the era that is passing there has been an elaboration of governmental functions and activities and of voluntary organizations previously unknown to history. In the retrenchment that seems inevitable now, many of these official and non-official functions and activities will be greatly curtailed—and much publishing activity will cease. Obviously it is desirable for future research in history and social research that as full and faithful a record as possible of the immediate past be preserved.

Fifth, the above outline is limited primarily to the types of materials that libraries should be expected to collect for the social sciences. Museum objects—whether in art, anthropology, archeology or industry—have not been emphasized in this paper.

While there is obviously some overlapping among the categories outlined above it is hoped that the outline may have practical value in clarifying the scope of this project and also as an approach in acquisition activities of libraries.

### III. AN APPROACH TO THE WORK IN THE STATES

To make the collection and preservation of primary source materials an effective nation-wide movement requires local leadership in each state. The plan that is being developed, therefore, is to designate for each state a person who will serve as chairman of a committee representing scholars and librarians, which will work out such a program as is best suited to local needs. These state committees should include interested scholars in each state who through use have become familiar with the primary resources of their state. The leading libraries that should play an active rôle in the collection and preservation of research materials should also be represented on these state committees. Thus, these committees should become agencies of mediation between libraries and scholars. The scholars on the one hand can define the materials that are extant in their state, that are worthy of collection and preservation, and with their

co-operation librarians, representing the appropriate libraries, should be able to work out a unified state program which will provide for necessary duplication but avoid the possibility of wasteful duplication or neglect of important categories.

#### IV. STATE PROGRAMS OF ACTION

No blanket program can be recommended, because resources, needs, and possibilities vary from state to state. On the basis of field work and correspondence with those in charge of state document-centers, certain observations can be made in regard to state programs already in progress. These tend to indicate that the following activities are desirable:

(1) A state conference or preliminary survey is desirable: (a) to determine existing resources covering the categories mentioned that should be preserved; (b) to review the collecting and preserving activities of libraries, historical societies, research institutes, museums, and archives; (c) to develop interest in preserving the essential research materials. Such an approach will disclose omissions or unnecessary duplications. It should also disclose the additional organization work that is necessary in the various states in order to give due consideration to metropolitan centers and important libraries or agencies that should be enlisted in a unified state program.

(2) The naming of one or two centers in each state to serve as trustees for research workers in the collection and preservation of materials can only be regarded as a point of departure in many states. In general, thus far in selecting these centers the emphasis has been upon the state as the unit for which materials were to be collected. This is a logical unit in the collection of official publications of each state government, as well as in the assemblage of materials published by state organizations, but in some states the existence of large metropolitan communities calls for the designation of secondary centers, possibly metropolitan centers, to collect intensively for the metropolitan area, rather than for the state.

(3) In states where the situation is comparatively simple and there are no secondary centers to be considered, document center libraries are conducting inventories of their holdings, want lists are being prepared, and gaps are being filled.

(4) In some states a survey of state archives and a printed report

showing what is available in different state offices is a desirable project for it helps to indicate what needs to be done to preserve archival material and to make it accessible to scholars.

(5) To make acquisition more thorough and to assist libraries and scholars, some state document-centers are preparing a check-list of the official publications of their state and are determining which offices save and distribute.

(6) Some state document-centers are introducing legislation to make their library officially a depository or to centralize printing and the exchange and distribution of state documents.

(7) One question has been raised regarding the scope of work: Should state document-centers collect the documents of adjoining states or of other states? This raises the whole question of regional document libraries. The present plan does not concern that problem primarily, since it centers in the source materials that originate in each state. When universities and research centers become document-conscious, some sort of regional co-operation will evolve, but it should be the outgrowth of local and regional needs and will come naturally. It is a problem that the librarians and research scholars of the area affected by a regional organization should consider. In general, regional planning should follow the working-out of graduate-school policies, which make it necessary to have at hand the documents of a definite region. At the present time the only regional principle that is urged is with reference to the research material which originates within each state or within metropolitan areas. As the work progresses, regional organization with reference to certain types of material or in strategic scholarly and geographic centers both may prove feasible and desirable.

(8) Another essential in a state program is well-directed publicity and interpretation of the program of collecting and organizing these materials. Such publicity should disclose the division of labor agreed upon by libraries. Among other objectives, two should predominate in this publicity: (a) To arouse state-wide interest among the agencies and persons that have valuable sources, some of which should be allocated to research centers; others should be preserved and made available for research where they are if they cannot be allocated to a research center. Public officials, manufacturers, business men, and laymen in nearly every field who carry on private or community

enterprises that are significant in our civilization should be brought to an appreciation of the historical and research value of the records over which they have control. This is necessary if some of the existing potential resources are to be mobilized and saved for the future.

(b) Collections should be brought to the attention of scholars through guides, check-lists, bibliographies, and descriptive bulletins. Each state document-center, in co-operation with other libraries in the state, might well publish a bibliography or union list of available research resources in the state. Such check-lists should include not merely library resources but manuscript materials—archival and non-archival—whether in governmental or private hands.

(g) Further, state document-centers should also become clearing houses for the exchange of duplicates. Under the auspices of a committee of the National Association of State Libraries, a national clearing house for public documents has been set up in connection with the H. W. Wilson Company, which will soon begin its work.

#### V. CONCLUSION

The foregoing discussion traces the beginning of a new movement that concerns itself with the collection and preservation of the basic records of our civilization in strategic scholarly and geographic centers. This movement was originated by social-science scholars, who need these sources for their researches, but it represents essentially a library function. While here and there librarians had struggled, with the assistance of isolated scholars, to preserve what they believed pertinent social science sources, this organized effort should give rise to a better integration of the activities of libraries with the changing and evolving research needs of scholars. The categories or types of material to be preserved have been tentatively outlined, and it is hoped that with the co-operation of social scientists and librarians they may be refined and adapted to local opportunities to gather significant source materials in each state. It is only through such close co-operation between scholars and librarians that the collecting and preserving activities of libraries in each state can be made purposeful, systematic, and effective, in so far as they relate to the primary sources for the social sciences. Moreover, it is only through such co-operation that the present generation of scholars and librarians can improve the foundations upon which research in the social sciences can be made more scientific.

## CENTURY-OLD ECOLOGICAL STUDIES IN FRANCE

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### ABSTRACT

A century ago, M. de Guerry de Champneuf made some interesting studies relating to the statistical distribution of crime, suicide, and other social phenomena. These distributions were made on the basis of groupings of age, sex, type of crime, and geographical distribution. While the supporting data of modern science were lacking, the studies might give us some interesting sidelights for comparison with the data of present-day studies in sociology and human ecology.

There is a tendency for students of human relations to emphasize a particular method of study during each period of years. Following the time of Comte the analysis of social activities was largely of a non-statistical nature. The general impression was developed that statistical methods could not be applied to the study of social phenomena. However, during the past twenty-five years sociologists have placed an unusual amount of emphasis upon attempts to develop objective standards for the measurement of social phenomena, and to determine what relationship, if any, exists between human activities and measurable situations. In our enthusiasm to learn more about the "unknown" which is all about us we have neglected many important studies of earlier periods which should be of much value and interest to us.

Quetelet (1796-1874) was active for nearly half a century in the attempt to measure social phenomena statistically and hence much of his work is generally known. There were, however, other important studies which preceded the work of Quetelet, but which have not received much attention, perhaps because it has been only recently that the interests of sociologists have been directed toward certain fields.

Just about the time when August Comte was beginning to formulate the social philosophy which played an important part in the development of sociology for the next seventy-five years, M. de Guerry de Champneuf completed a remarkable study which he

called *Statistique morale de la France*.<sup>1</sup> In this study of one hundred years ago he revived with fresh contributions the principles from which Muenster, Sansovino, Bodin, Graunt, Petty, Süssmilch, and Achenwall had been approaching the study of society in previous centuries.<sup>2</sup> M. de Guerry de Champneuf took particular phases of life concerning which erroneous ideas were afloat, and made careful studies of the data available. In his analysis of crime, suicides, illegitimacy, and similar phenomena, he was so far in advance of most sociologists who followed him that it has been only within the last twenty years that we have made specific investigations and regional studies and surveys along the lines he proposed. He lacked an *understanding and interested audience*. In this study de Champneuf brought forth the view that relatively constant factors and conditions are determinants in the study of social phenomena and that these environmental conditions may be modified with a consequent modification in the acts. Due to the lack of supporting data of history, economics, biology, and psychology the analyses made did not reach the degree of reliability now possible in similar studies. However, conclusions reached compare very favorably with the results obtained by students who have the advantage of the additional knowledge and machinery in their study of human ecology. In 1823 Quetelet spent some time in Paris and became acquainted with the studies being made there. From that time he began to interest himself in the scientific view of statistics. In April, 1825, he published his first statistical work—*Memoir sur les lois des naissances et de la mortalité à Bruxelles*.

M. de Champneuf divided France into five regions or districts. Each one was composed of seventeen departments. For six successive years he compiled data on various types of crime in each department and made interesting tables, maps, and comparisons based upon geographical location and considering age, sex, and instruction. He classified crimes as crimes against the person and crimes against property. The calculations were made on the number of persons accused of the crime rather than on the basis of convictions. It is

<sup>1</sup> M. de Guerry de Champneuf was Director of Affaires Criminelles in the Ministry of Justice (1821-35).

<sup>2</sup> M. C. Elmer, *Jour. of Ed. Soc.*, January, 1931, pp. 279-86.

rather significant that the study showed a consistent ratio during six successive years, 1825-30, for all crimes and including all departments of France. Concerning these data he stated,

There is the influence of climate, and there is the influence of seasons, for whereas the crimes against persons are always more numerous in the summer, the crimes against property are more numerous in winter—so of the crimes com-

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF CRIMES AGAINST PERSONS

REGION	PER CENT OF TOTAL CRIMES COMMITTED IN FRANCE						AVERAGE	PER CENT OF TOTAL POPULATION
	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830		
North.....	25	24	23	26	25	24	25	27
South.....	28	26	22	23	25	23	24	15
East.....	17	21	19	20	19	19	19	18
West.....	18	16	21	17	17	16	18	22
Central.....	12	13	15	14	14	18	14	17

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY

REGION	PER CENT OF TOTAL CRIMES COMMITTED IN FRANCE						AVERAGE	PER CENT OF TOTAL POPULATION
	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830		
North.....	41	42	42	43	44	44	42	27
South.....	12	11	11	12	12	11	12	15
East.....	18	16	17	16	14	15	16	18
West.....	17	19	19	17	17	17	18	22
Central.....	12	12	11	12	13	13	12	17

mitted in the south, the crimes against the person are far more numerous than those against property, while in the north the crimes against property are, in the same proportion, more numerous than those against the person.

M. de Champneuf did not personally collect all these data. From 1821-29 M. le Comte de Chabral, Prefet de la Seine, published *Recherches statistiques sur la ville de Paris et le Departement de la Seine*. These studies were made under the direction of Fourier and contained a judicial study of populations by him. They covered



TABLE III  
CRIMES AGAINST PERSONS

No.	DEPARTMENTS	ONE AC- CUSED OUT OF — INHABI- TANTS	No.	DEPARTMENTS	ONE AC- CUSED OUT OF — INHABI- TANTS
1.	Corse.....	2,199	45.	Rhône.....	18,793
2.	Lot.....	5,885	46.	Vosges.....	18,835
3.	Ariège.....	6,173	47.	Indre et Loire.....	19,131
4.	Pyrénées-Orientales.....	6,728	48.	Loire Inférieure.....	19,314
5.	Haut-Rhin.....	7,343	49.	Aube.....	19,602
6.	Lozère.....	7,710	50.	Vendée.....	20,827
7.	Aveyron.....	8,236	51.	Loir et Cher.....	21,292
8.	Ardèche.....	9,474	52.	Eure et Loir.....	21,368
9.	Doubs.....	11,560	53.	Dordogne.....	21,585
10.	Moselle.....	12,153	54.	Cher.....	21,934
11.	Hautes-Pyrénées.....	12,223	55.	Ille et Vilaine.....	22,138
12.	Bas-Rhin.....	12,309	56.	Seine et Marne.....	22,201
13.	Seine et Oise.....	12,477	57.	Haute Saône.....	22,339
14.	Hérault.....	12,814	58.	Lot et Garonne.....	22,969
15.	Basses-Alpes.....	12,935	59.	Pas-de-Calais.....	23,101
16.	Tarn.....	13,019	60.	Morbihan.....	23,316
17.	Gard.....	13,115	61.	Gironde.....	24,096
18.	Var.....	13,145	62.	Meuse.....	24,507
19.	Drôme.....	13,396	63.	Charente.....	24,964
20.	Bouches du Rhône.....	13,409	64.	Nièvre.....	25,087
21.	Vaucluse.....	13,576	65.	Jura.....	26,221
22.	Seine.....	13,945	66.	Aisne.....	26,226
23.	Tarn et Garonne.....	14,790	67.	Haute-Marne.....	26,231
24.	Eure.....	14,795	68.	Meurthe.....	26,574
25.	Vienne.....	15,010	69.	Nord.....	26,740
26.	Corrèze.....	15,262	70.	Allier.....	26,747
27.	Marne.....	15,602	71.	Loire.....	27,491
28.	Aude.....	15,647	72.	Oise.....	28,180
29.	Haute-Loire.....	16,170	73.	Orne.....	28,329
30.	Haute-Vienne.....	16,256	74.	Mayenne.....	28,331
31.	Basses-Pyrénées.....	16,722	75.	Côtes-du-Nord.....	28,607
32.	Puy de Dôme.....	17,256	76.	Saône et Loire.....	28,391
33.	Hautes-Alpes.....	17,488	77.	Ain.....	28,870
34.	Calvados.....	17,577	78.	Maine et Loire.....	29,592
35.	Landes.....	17,687	79.	Finistère.....	29,872
36.	Loiret.....	17,722	80.	Manche.....	31,078
37.	Yonne.....	18,006	81.	Côte d'Or.....	32,256
38.	Cantal.....	18,070	82.	Indre.....	32,404
39.	Seine Inférieure.....	18,355	83.	Somme.....	33,592
40.	Deux-Sèvres.....	18,400	84.	Sarthe.....	33,913
41.	Haute-Garonne.....	18,642	85.	Ardenne.....	35,203
42.	Gers.....	18,642	86.	Creuse.....	37,014
43.	Charente Inférieure.....	18,712			
44.	Isère.....	18,785		Average.....	17,085

The number inscribed upon each department, in Chart I, refers to the numbers of the table, which indicates the average proportion of crimes with the population; the different degrees of shade correspond with the number of crimes represented.

Thus, in this map, the department of Corsica (No. 1), of which the tint is the darkest, presents the maximum of crime, i.e., one person accused out of every 2,199 inhabitants. The department of Creuse (No. 86), of which the tint is the lightest, presents the minimum of crime, i.e., one person accused out of every 37,014 inhabitants.

TABLE IV  
CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY

No.	DEPARTMENTS	ONE AC- CUSED OUT OF — INHABI- TANTS	No.	DEPARTMENTS	ONE AC- CUSED OUT OF — INHABI- TANTS
1.	Seine.....	1,368	45.	Pyrénées-Orientales...	7,632
2.	Seine-Inférieure.....	2,906	46.	Drôme.....	7,759
3.	Seine-et-Oise.....	3,879	47.	Haute-Saône.....	7,770
4.	Eure-et-Loire.....	4,016	48.	Allier.....	7,925
5.	Pas-de-Calais.....	4,040	49.	Morbihan.....	7,940
6.	Aube.....	4,086	50.	Gard.....	7,990
7.	Calvados.....	4,500	51.	Jura.....	8,059
8.	Rhône.....	4,504	52.	Hautes-Alpes.....	8,174
9.	Moselle.....	4,529	53.	Nièvre.....	8,236
10.	Corse.....	4,589	54.	Orne.....	8,248
11.	Vienne.....	4,710	55.	Sarthe.....	8,294
12.	Eure.....	4,774	56.	Isère.....	8,326
13.	Haut-Rhin.....	4,915	57.	Maine-et-Loire.....	8,520
14.	Bas-Rhin.....	4,920	58.	Basses-Pyrénées.....	8,533
15.	Marne.....	4,950	59.	Tarne-et-Garonne.....	8,680
16.	Loiret.....	5,042	60.	Ardennes.....	8,847
17.	Bouches-du-Rhône.....	5,291	61.	Lot-et-Garonne.....	8,943
18.	Charente-Inférieure.....	5,357	62.	Vosges.....	9,044
19.	Aisne.....	5,521	63.	Lot.....	9,049
20.	Vaucluse.....	5,731	64.	Côte-d'Or.....	9,159
21.	Seine-et-Marne.....	5,786	65.	Meuse.....	9,190
22.	Doubs.....	5,914	66.	Mayenne.....	9,198
23.	Lozère.....	5,990	67.	Loire-Inférieure.....	9,392
24.	Loir-et-Cher.....	6,017	68.	Haute-Marne.....	9,539
25.	Landes.....	6,170	69.	Var.....	9,572
26.	Nord.....	6,175	70.	Ariège.....	9,597
27.	Tarn.....	6,241	71.	Hautes-Pyrénées.....	9,797
28.	Haute-Vienne.....	6,402	72.	Dordogne.....	10,237
29.	Yonne.....	6,516	73.	Ardèche.....	10,263
30.	Ille-et-Vilaine.....	6,524	74.	Aude.....	10,431
31.	Oise.....	6,659	75.	Gers.....	10,486
32.	Aveyron.....	6,731	76.	Cher.....	10,503
33.	Meurthe.....	6,831	77.	Saône-et-Loire.....	10,708
34.	Finistère.....	6,842	78.	Hérault.....	10,951
35.	Deux-Sèvres.....	6,863	79.	Cantal.....	11,645
36.	Indre-et-Loire.....	6,909	80.	Puy-de-Dôme.....	12,141
37.	Côtes-du-Nord.....	7,059	81.	Loire.....	12,665
38.	Somme.....	7,144	82.	Corrèze.....	12,949
39.	Haute-Garonne.....	7,204	83.	Charente.....	13,018
40.	Basses-Alpes.....	7,289	84.	Ain.....	15,890
41.	Gironde.....	7,423	85.	Haute-Loire.....	18,043
42.	Manche.....	7,424	86.	Creuse.....	20,235
43.	Vendée.....	7,566			
44.	Indre.....	7,624		Average.....	6,031

The same rule of distinction applies as in the last.

TABLE V  
INSTRUCTION

No.	DEPARTMENTS	NO. OF YOUNG MEN KNOWING HOW TO READ AND WRITE OUT OF 100 IN- SCRIBED	No.	DEPARTMENTS	NO. OF YOUNG MEN KNOWING HOW TO READ AND WRITE OUT OF 100 IN- SCRIBED
1.	Meuse . . . . .	74	45.	Vauchuse . . . . .	37
2.	Doubs . . . . .	73	46.	Ain . . . . .	37
3.	Jura . . . . .	73	47.	Charente . . . . .	36
4.	Haute Marne . . . . .	72	48.	Aude . . . . .	34
5.	Haut-Rhin . . . . .	71	49.	Saône-et-Loire . . . . .	32
6.	Seine . . . . .	71	50.	Lot-et-Garonne . . . . .	31
7.	Hautes-Alpes . . . . .	69	51.	Cantal . . . . .	31
8.	Meurthe . . . . .	68	52.	Pyrénées-Orientales . . . . .	31
9.	Ardennes . . . . .	67	53.	Haute-Garonne . . . . .	31
10.	Marne . . . . .	63	54.	Aveyron . . . . .	31
11.	Vosges . . . . .	62	55.	Sarthe . . . . .	30
12.	Bas-Rhin . . . . .	62	56.	Loire . . . . .	29
13.	Côte-d'Or . . . . .	60	57.	Isère . . . . .	29
14.	Haute-Saône . . . . .	59	58.	Landes . . . . .	28
15.	Aube . . . . .	59	59.	Vendée . . . . .	28
16.	Moselle . . . . .	57	60.	Lozère . . . . .	27
17.	Seine-et-Oise . . . . .	56	61.	Loir-et-Cher . . . . .	27
18.	Eure-et-Loir . . . . .	54	62.	Ardèche . . . . .	27
19.	Seine-et-Marne . . . . .	54	63.	Indre-et-Loire . . . . .	27
20.	Oise . . . . .	54	64.	Tarn-et-Garonne . . . . .	25
21.	Hautes-Pyrénées . . . . .	53	65.	Vienne . . . . .	25
22.	Calvados . . . . .	52	66.	Ill-et-Vilaine . . . . .	25
23.	Eure . . . . .	51	67.	Loire-Inférieure . . . . .	24
24.	Aisne . . . . .	51	68.	Lot . . . . .	24
25.	Corse . . . . .	49	69.	Var . . . . .	23
26.	Pas-de-Calais . . . . .	48	70.	Maine-et-Loire . . . . .	23
27.	Yonne . . . . .	47	71.	Creuse . . . . .	23
28.	Basses-Pyrénées . . . . .	47	72.	Haute-Loire . . . . .	21
29.	Basses-Alpes . . . . .	46	73.	Tarn . . . . .	20
30.	Nord . . . . .	45	74.	Nièvre . . . . .	20
31.	Rhône . . . . .	45	75.	Mayenne . . . . .	19
32.	Hérault . . . . .	45	76.	Puy-de-Dôme . . . . .	19
33.	Orne . . . . .	45	77.	Ariège . . . . .	18
34.	Somme . . . . .	44	78.	Dordogne . . . . .	18
35.	Seine-Inférieure . . . . .	43	79.	Indre . . . . .	17
36.	Manche . . . . .	43	80.	Côtes-du-Nord . . . . .	16
37.	Loiret . . . . .	42	81.	Finistère . . . . .	15
38.	Drôme . . . . .	42	82.	Morbihan . . . . .	14
39.	Deux-Sèvres . . . . .	41	83.	Cher . . . . .	13
40.	Gard . . . . .	40	84.	Haute-Vienne . . . . .	13
41.	Gironde . . . . .	40	85.	Allier . . . . .	13
42.	Charente-Inférieure . . . . .	39	86.	Corrèze . . . . .	12
43.	Bouches-du-Rhône . . . . .	38			
44.	Gers . . . . .	38		Average . . . . .	38

In Chart II, obscurity of the tints corresponds with the minimum of instruction, i.e., with the maximum of ignorance.

CHART II  
INSTRUCTION.

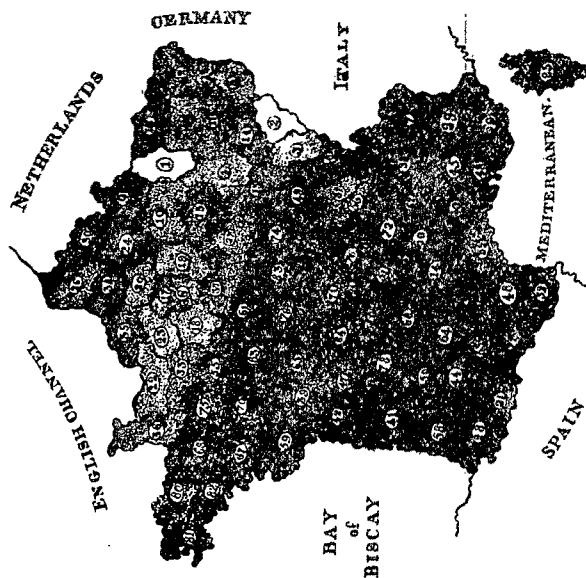
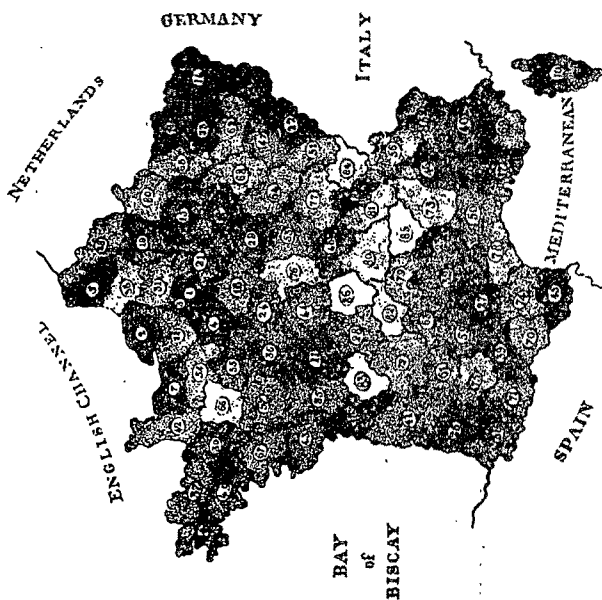


CHART I  
CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.



Photostatic reproduction of maps from Henry Lytton Bulwer, "Statistique morale de la France 1825-30," *France*, I, 132

a very wide range of topics which, as stated in the reports of Dr. John Bowring in 1832,

Contain the most curious and interesting and valuable information . . . here it will appear that there is hardly any subject which can interest the inhabitants of Paris,—which may be curious to the traveller, or interesting to the statesman, that the government has not found it possible to secure and to give, not with perfect accuracy perhaps, but still with sufficient accuracy to enable one, over a long series of years, to come to certain conclusions.

It was with such a mass of general data as a background that this most significant series of studies, and charts, of which some are given here, were made a few years later. Because of lack of space we shall only mention the remarkable studies made of the suicides, distributed according to age and means employed in the various divisions of France. Likewise the distribution of the seventeen most common crimes by age and sex groups. Space will permit only brief mention of data showing the average geographical distribution of crimes against property and the average geographical distribution of instruction in France from 1825 to 1830 inclusive.

In this study France was divided according to its 86 political departments. M. de Champneuf shows in Table III the number of persons in each department for one person accused of a crime against persons. In Table IV he shows the number of persons for one person accused of a crime against property. This is further displayed on Chart I. The incidence of instruction based on the number of young men and of each 100 inscribed is shown on Table V and displayed on Chart II.

We are not attempting to justify the studies of M. de Guerry de Champneuf nor to present them as models. We wish, however, to call attention to some of the interesting contributions made by the forerunners of modern sociology and human ecology.

## STUDENTS' DISSERTATIONS IN SOCIOLOGY

The following list of doctoral dissertations and masters' theses in preparation in universities and colleges in the United States and Canada is a compilation of the returns from letters sent by the editors of the *Journal* to departments of sociology. The date given indicates the probable year in which the degree will be conferred. The name of the college or university in italics designates the institution where the dissertation is in progress.

### DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS

- Frank F. Alexander, A.B., A.M. Peabody College for Teachers, 1926, 1928. "Culture Areas in Tennessee." 1935. *Vanderbilt*.
- Minne E. Allen, M.S. Iowa State, 1929. "The German Youth Movement." *Columbia*.
- Nolan W. Allen, A.B. St. Viator's; A.M. Catholic University. "Standard of Life in American Wage Theories and Policies." 1934. *Catholic University of America*.
- Almar S. Anderson, Ph.B. Chicago, 1923. "Social Conflicts in School Community Relationships." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Columbus Andrews, A.B., A.M. North Carolina, 1927, 1928. "County Government in South Carolina." 1933. *North Carolina*.
- Elma Hope Ashton, A.B. Richmond, 1925; A.M. Georgia, 1926. "A Follow-up Study of the Women Graduates of the Class of 1922 from Certain Selected Southern Institutions." 1934. *North Carolina*.
- H. Harold Axworthy, A.B., A.M. New York, 1923, 1924. "Unemployment Relief Measures in New York City, 1929-1932." 1933. *New York University Graduate School*.
- James O. Babcock, A.B. Cornell, 1929; A.M. Iowa, 1930. "Rural Unrest in Iowa." 1934. *Chicago*.
- Ernest M. Banzet, A.B. Hamline, 1920; A.M. Minnesota, 1926. "Development of Rural Consciousness as Shown from the Files of a Country Newspaper." 1933. *Michigan State College*.
- Robert Harvie Barker, A.B. Emory and Henry, 1926; A.M. Vanderbilt, 1928. "Crime and Delinquency in Charlottesville." 1933. *Virginia*.
- Louis Baska. "Slovaks in the United States." 1933. *Catholic University of America*.
- Howard Wayland Beers, B.S., M.S. Cornell, 1929, 1930. "Forms of Family Interaction." 1933. *Cornell*.

- Helen O. Belknap, A.B. Oberlin, 1913; A.M. Columbia, 1917. "Neighborhood Trends." 1933. *Columbia*.
- Oscar Benson, A.B. Upsala, 1912; A.M. Augustana, 1914. "Cultural Diffusion among American Swedes." 1933. *Pittsburgh*.
- Helen Bernard, A.B., A.M. Oklahoma, 1922, 1924. "The Social Content of the Interrelationships of the Client with His Environments as Shown in Case Records of the St. Louis Provident Association." 1933. *Washington University*.
- William S. Bernard, A.B. Yale, 1929. "Naturalization in Its Social Setting." 1933. *Yale*.
- Ruth Z. Bernstein, A.B., A.M. Columbia, 1918, 1924. "Naturalization and Citizenship." *Columbia*.
- Erdman D. Beynon, A.B., A.M. Toronto, 1914, 1915. "Occupational Readjustments of Hungarian Immigrants to an Urban Community." 1933. *Michigan*.
- William J. Blackburn, Jr., B.S., A.M. Ohio, 1920, 1923. "Administration of Criminal Justice in Franklin County, Ohio." 1933. *Ohio*.
- Herbert A. Bloch, B.S. College of the City of New York, 1926; A.M. Columbia, 1930. "Sociological Study of Loyalty." 1934. *Columbia*.
- John William Boldyreff, A.B. Michigan State, 1929. "Periodic and Non-Periodic, Short- and Long-Time Fluctuations in Social Adaptation." 1933. *Harvard*.
- J. Max Bond, B.P.E. Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago; A.M. Pittsburgh. "The Negro in Los Angeles." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Alfred W. Bowers, A.B. Beloit, 1928; A.M. Chicago, 1929. "The Function of the Mandan Okipa Ceremony." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Glenn A. Bowers. "Government and Industrial Relations in the U.S." 1933. *Columbia*.
- Raymond Victor Bowers, A.B. Kansas, 1927; A.M. Northwestern, 1930. "Radio and Culture Change." 1933. *Minnesota*.
- Zola Bronson, Ph.G. Brooklyn College of Pharmacy, 1927; B.S.S. College of the City of New York, 1930. "Social Factors Affecting Boys' Club Membership in an Interstitial Area." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Arthur J. Brophy, A.B. Niagara. "Teaching of Social Science in Catholic Seminaries in the United States." 1934. *Catholic University of America*.
- David K. Bruner, A.B., A.M. Northwestern, 1923, 1924. "Study of Certain Radical Groups in the Philadelphia Area." 1934. *Pennsylvania*.
- Edwin S. Burdell, A.M. Ohio, 1929. "Social Implications of Town Planning, Zoning, and Housing." 1933. *Ohio*.
- Albert H. Burrows, A.B. Missouri Wesleyan, 1920. "Juvenile Delinquency in Iowa." 1934. *Iowa*.
- Arthur P. Butler, A.B. Bishops, 1915; A.M. Chicago, 1924. "The Natural History of the Press Agent." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Margaret Callaghan, A.B. College of New Rochelle. "Prison Labor and Prison Administration." *Columbia*.

- Anna M. Cameron, A.B., A.M. Nebraska, 1915, 1920. "A Study in the Evolution and Change of Social Attitudes." 1933. *Michigan*.
- William Paul Carter, B.S. Kansas State Teachers, 1921; A.M. Chicago, 1926. "The Only Child in the Family." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Grace E. Chaffee, A.B. Iowa, 1919; A.M. Chicago, 1927. "The Sociology of the Sectarian Community." 1933. *Chicago*.
- H. K. Chang, B.S., M.S. Iowa State, 1930, 1931. "Radio as a Possible Means for Educating the Chinese Farmers." 1935. *Wisconsin*.
- Ch'eng-Hsin Chao, A.B. Yenching, China. "Ecological China: Segmentation and Integration." 1933. *Michigan*.
- J. L. Charlton, A.B. Richmond, 1926; A.M. North Carolina, 1927. "Place of Custom and Tradition in Community Organization." 1934. *Michigan State College*.
- Theodore P. Chitambar, A.B. Lucknow, 1927; A.M. Northwestern, 1929. "Sociological Analysis of Caste in India." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Michael E. Choukas, A.B. Dartmouth; A.M. Columbia. "Mt. Athos: A Sociological Study of a Theocratic Republic." 1934. *Columbia*.
- John Yohan Chu, A.B. Soochow, 1924; A.M. Vanderbilt, 1931. "Community Organization." 1933. *Vanderbilt*.
- Thomas H. Clare, A.B. McKendree; A.M. Washington University, 1931. "The Social Theories of W. T. Harris." 1934. *Washington University*.
- Pearl E. Clark, A.B., A.M. Montana. "Social Adjustment Problems of Junior College Girls." 1935. *Southern California*.
- Wendell Cleland, A.B. Westminster, 1909; A.M. Princeton, 1914. "Population Problems in Egypt." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Harold Coe Coffman, A.B. Kansas, 1915; A.M. Michigan, 1922. "A Study of Foundations Interested in Child Welfare." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Cynthia B. Cohen, Ph.B. Chicago, 1932. "An Ecological Study of Vice in Chicago and New York." 1935. *Chicago*.
- Joseph Cohen, A.B., A.M. Washington, 1925, 1927. "Economic and Communal Regionalism in the Detroit Area." 1933. *Washington*.
- Marie F. Concistre, B.S., A.M. Columbia, 1925, 1927. "Adult Education in an Interstitial Area." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Augustine Confrey. "Racial Intelligence." 1934. *Catholic University of America*.
- Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., B.S. Virginia Polytechnic Institute, 1922; A.M. Vanderbilt, 1926. "A Study of the Reliability of the Marriage Study Questionnaire." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Leonard Covello, B.S. Columbia. "Social Backgrounds of the Italian School Child." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Walter O. Cralle, A.B., A.M. Oklahoma, 1915, 1925. "Social Changes and Isolation in Selected Ozark Mountain Communities." 1934. *Minnesota*.
- Llewelyn A. Cramer, B.S., M.S. Ohio, 1926, 1928. "Rural Public Dependence in Five Ohio Counties." 1933. *Ohio*.



- Paul G. Cressey, A.B. Oberlin, 1922; A.M. Chicago, 1929. "The Social Rôle of Motion Pictures in an Interstitial Area." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Albert Croft, A.B. Carroll, 1923; A.M. Wisconsin, 1927. "Inter-Denominational Co-operation in the United States: A Study of the Social Forces Promoting and Retarding Social Co-operation Conflict." 1934. *Wisconsin*.
- Evelyn Buchan Crook, Ph.B., A.M. Chicago, 1920, 1922. "Delinquency Triangles, Chicago." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Vattel Elbert Daniel, A.B. Virginia Union, 1914; A.M. Colorado, 1924. "A Study of Ritual in the Negro Church." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Ada J. Davis, A.B. Oberlin; A.M. Chicago, 1925. "The Social Control of Adolescent Girls." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Dawson F. Dean, B.S. New York, 1930. "The Homosexual Attitude." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Calvert Dedrick, A.B. Wisconsin, 1924. "The Social History and Present Characteristics of Local Communities in Madison, Wisconsin, 1931." 1933. *Wisconsin*.
- Thorne Deuel, A.B. West Point, 1912. "Prehistoric Mississippi Valley Cultures and Their Sequences." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Harold Dorn, B.S., M.S. Cornell, 1929, 1930. "Differential Mortality in Ohio, 1930." 1933. *Wisconsin*.
- Mary Dublin, A.B. Barnard, 1930. "A Study of Maternal Mortality Rates." 1933. *Columbia*.
- Cecil Letts Dunn, A.B. Southern California, 1930; A.M. Claremont, 1932. "An Investigation of Vilfredo Pareto's Mathematical Method." 1934. *Claremont*.
- Mary Duthie, B.S. Columbia, 1924. "An Evaluation of 4-H Club Work in Certain Mid-Western States." 1934. *Wisconsin*.
- James Pearsall Earp, B.S. Pennsylvania, 1925; A.M. Columbia, 1926. "The Changing Function of the Engineer since 1900." 1933. *Northwestern*.
- Allen D. Edwards, B.S. Southwestern State Teachers, 1928; Ph.M. Wisconsin, 1932. "A Critique of Theories of Community Organization." 1934. *Duke*.
- Frederick R. Eggan, Ph.B., A.M. Chicago, 1927. "Hope Kinship and Social Organization." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Charles Fastov, B.S. College of the City of New York, 1930. "The Family Case Worker as a Factor in Social Adjustment." *Columbia*.
- Leah Feder, A.B. Mt. Holyoke, 1917. "A Study of Unemployment Relief in the U.S. in Times of Depression from 1857 to 1930." 1933. *Bryn Mawr*.
- Sara Feder, A.M. Missouri, 1931. "Workmen's Compensation in Missouri." 1934. *Missouri*.
- Arthur E. Fink, A.B., A.M. Pennsylvania, 1920, 1930. "Theories of Crime Causation in America." 1934. *Pennsylvania*.
- Mildred L. Fisher, A.B., A.M. New York, 1924. "School Factors in the Causation of Problem Behavior." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.

- Regina Flannery, A.B. Trinity, 1927; A.M. Catholic University, 1930. "Iroquoian-Algonquian Cultural Relations." 1933. *Catholic University of America*.
- Elizabeth Foley, A.B. Oberlin, 1929; A.M. Bryn Mawr, 1930. "Leisure Time Activities in a Steel Town in Periods of Depression and Prosperity." 1933. *Bryn Mawr*.
- John F. Fox, B.S. Missouri, 1929; A.M. New York, 1931. "Recreation and Community Organization in a Commuting Community." 1934. *New York University School of Education*.
- Clarke Frederickson, B.S. North Dakota Agricultural, 1931. "A Descriptive Study of a Local Boys' Club." 1934. *New York University School of Education*.
- Pauline F. Geffen, B.Litt., M.S. Columbia, 1916, 1930. "Tabloid Journalism in the U.S." *Columbia*.
- Carl C. Gentry, A.B., A.M. Missouri, 1924, 1925. "Principles and Problems Involved in the Organization of a State Department of Social Welfare." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Margaret B. Gerard, B.S. Teachers College, 1928. "The Region as a Unit for Social Organization." 1934. *New York University School of Education*.
- William H. Gilbert, A.B. Cincinnati, 1927; A.M. Chicago, 1930. "Cherokee Ethnology." 1933. *Chicago*.
- E. Colum Gilfillan, A.B. Pennsylvania, 1910; A.M. Columbia, 1920. "Invention in the History of the Ship." *Columbia*.
- Paul McB. Gillis, A.B. Muskingum, 1923; M.S.T. Pittsburgh Theological, 1930; M.S. Pittsburgh, 1931. "Sociological Interpretation of the Writings of Amos." 1933. *Pittsburgh*.
- Stanley A. Ginsburgh, A.M. Johns Hopkins, 1931. "Jewish Youth Movements." 1934. *Massachusetts State College*.
- Clarence Elmer Glick, A.B. De Pauw, 1927; A.M. Chicago, 1928. "The Chinese Colonization of Hawaii: A Study of Race Mixture and Assimilation." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Nathan Goldberg, A.B., A.M. Pittsburgh, 1928, 1930. "Social Classes." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Loraine R. Green, Ph.B., A.M. Chicago, 1918, 1919. "The Negro Slum and the Negro Community." 1933. *Chicago*.
- John B. Griffing, A.B. Drake, 1909; B.S. Kansas Agricultural, 1904; A.M. Columbia, 1913. "Cultural Factors Affecting Population Growth." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Jennette Gruener, A.B., A.M. Wellesley, 1923, 1925. "Production and Markets in Two Steel Plants, Related to Employment and Unemployment, in Periods of Prosperity and Depression." 1933. *Bryn Mawr*.
- Elliott Guild, A.B. Wisconsin, 1925; A.M. Stanford, 1931. "An Appraisal of the Adequacy of Welfare Activities of the San Francisco Y.M.C.A." 1933. *Stanford*.

- Marion G. Haff, A.B., A.M. Tufts, 1925, 1926. "Criminology in the Mercantile Field." *Columbia*.
- Samuel Warren Hall, III, A.B. Swarthmore, 1927; A.M. Pennsylvania, 1928. "Tangier Island." 1933. *Pennsylvania*.
- Harmon Phillips Hayes, A.B. Illinois, 1925; A.M. Harvard, 1927. "Sociological Study of Nationalistic Movements." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Elizabeth Head, A.B., A.M. Georgia, 1927, 1929. "A Comparative Regional Study of Special Aspects of Religion in the South." 1934. *North Carolina*.
- David E. Henley, A.M. Southern California, 1928. "Higher Institutions of Learning as Agencies of Societal Self-Direction." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Elizabeth B. Herring, A.B. Vassar, 1915. "Rural Community Structure and Women's Social Relations." 1934. *Columbia*.
- F. W. Herriott, B.D. Union Theological, 1926; A.B. Ottawa, 1915. "Scope and Relationship of Character Building Agencies Dealing with High School Students." 1933. *Teachers College, Columbia University*.
- Bertha Hirshstein, A.B., A.M. Washington, 1926, 1930. "Some Sociological Implications of Library Circulation." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- John Weldon Hoot, A.B. Ashland, 1924; A.M. Wisconsin, 1926. "Lynching—Concept and Practice." 1933. *Pennsylvania*.
- Donald S. Howard, A.B. Otterbein; A.M. Denver. "Social Organization in Chicago 1870-1880." 1934. *Chicago*.
- Edwin Huntley, Jr., A.B. Illinois Wesleyan, 1929. "Sociological Problems of Family Life in an Interstitial Area." 1934. *New York University School of Education*.
- Thomas Gregory Hutton, A.B. McGill, 1924; S.T.B., A.M. Harvard, 1927, 1929. "A Regional Study of Crime in Metropolitan Chicago." 1934. *Chicago*.
- John Warwick Innes, B. Comm., Toronto, 1928; A.M. Columbia, 1929. "Interpretation of the Declining Birth-Rates in France, England, and the U.S." 1934. *Columbia*.
- W. R. P. Ireland, A.B. Oberlin, 1920. "The Young Roomer: A Study of a Mobile Urban Group." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Charles Edward Ironside, A.M. Aberdeen, 1919. "The Family in Colonial New York." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Katherine Bigley Ironside, B.S., A.M. Teachers College, 1921, 1924. "The Family in Colonial Massachusetts." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Ryoichi Ishii, A.M. New York, 1931. "Some Urgent Problems of Japanese Population." 1934. *Clark*.
- Michiji Ishikawa, A.M. Columbia, 1928. "The Cityward Movement in Japan." 1934. *Columbia*.
- John E. Jacobi, A.B. Lehigh, 1927. "Juvenile Delinquency in a Local Urban Area." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.

- Harold S. Jacoby, A.B. College of Pacific, 1928; A.M. Northwestern, 1932. "Sabbath Observance: A Social Institution." 1934. *Pennsylvania*.
- Earl S. Johnson, A.B. Baker, 1918; A.M. Chicago, 1933. "The Natural History of the Central Business District." 1933. *Chicago*.
- William B. Jones, Jr., A.B. Maryville, 1928; A.M. Vanderbilt, 1932. "Child Welfare in Tennessee." 1935. *Vanderbilt*.
- Arthur Katona, A.B., A.M. Wisconsin, 1930, 1931. "Marxism and Sociology." 1934. *Wisconsin*.
- Forrest M. Keen, A.B. Heidelberg, 1925. "The Sociological and Social Significance of Group Discussion." 1933. *Ohio*.
- Philip E. Keller, B.S., A.M. Pittsburgh, 1928, 1930. "The Sociology of Simon Nelson Patten." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Elisabeth A. Kelley, A.B., A.M. Montana, 1919, 1922. "First-Grade Difficulties in Learning to Read as Related to Personality." 1933. *New York University School of Education*.
- Henry H. Kessler, A.B., M.D. Cornell; A.M. Columbia. "A Study of Legislation Affecting the Rehabilitation of Disabled Workers." 1933. *Columbia*.
- John Davidson Ketchum, A.B., A.M. Toronto, 1922, 1925. "Social Integration in an Internment Camp." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Sidney S. Kobre, A.B. Johns Hopkins, 1927; A.M. Columbia, 1932. "Social Forces in the American Press." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Leslie Koempel (Miss), A.B. California, 1929. "The Effects of the Economic Depression on Standards of Living in a Steel Town." 1933. *Bryn Mawr*.
- Mirra Komarovsky, A.B. Barnard; A.M. Columbia. "A Sociological Study of Fashion." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Samuel A. Kramer, A.B. Temple, 1929; A.M. Ohio, 1930. "The Jewish Criminal." 1933. *Ohio*.
- Manford Kuhn, A.B. Earlham, 1931; A.M. Wisconsin, 1932. "A Social History of the Quakers." 1934. *Wisconsin*.
- Robert I. Kutak. A.B. Western Reserve; A.M. Columbia. "Story of a Bohemian-American Village." 1935. *Columbia*.
- James Tamplin Laing, A.B. West Virginia, 1924; A.M. Ohio, 1929. "The Negro Miner." 1933. *Ohio*.
- John Landesco, Ph.B. Chicago, 1924. "Organized Crime." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Paul H. Landis, A.M. Michigan, 1927. "Three Iron Range Towns: A Study in Social Change." 1934. *Minnesota*.
- R. N. Latture, A.B., A.M. Washington and Lee, 1915, 1916. "Individualized Recreation Activities." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Gerhardt Laves, Ph. B., A.M. Chicago, 1927, 1929. "Australian Languages." 1933. *Chicago*.
- William Lester Leap, B.S. Washington and Lee, 1923; M.S. Virginia, 1930. "The Rural Community: A Comparative Study." 1933. *Ohio*.
- Alfred McClung Lee, A.B., A.M. Pittsburgh, 1927, 1931. "The Rise of the Newspaper Industry." 1933. *Yale*.

- Elizabeth Briant Lee, A.B., A.M. Pittsburgh, 1930, 1931. "Cultural Background of Eminent American Women." 1934. *Yale*.
- Lewis Lindsey, B.S. Pennsylvania State, 1914; A.M. Vanderbilt, 1932. "Social Factors Influencing Failure in High School." 1935. *Vanderbilt*.
- Robert S. Linton, B.S. Michigan State, 1916; A.M. Michigan, 1931. "Relation of Community Factors and Vocational Training to the Achievements of Farm Youth." 1935. *Michigan State College*.
- John S. Lobb, A.B. Yale, 1930. "The Frontier in South Africa." 1933. *Yale*.
- Christine Lofstedt, A.B., A.M. Southern California, 1920, 1923. "A Study of the Mexicans in Pasadena." 1935. *Southern California*.
- Joseph H. Lookstein, A.B. College of the City of New York, 1928; A.M. Columbia, 1929. "Social Strata in Ancient Jewish Society." 1935. *Columbia*.
- Charles Price Loomis, B.S. New Mexico A. and M. College, 1928; A.M. North Carolina State, 1929. "Family Composition as Related to Family Living." 1933. *Harvard*.
- Walter Albin Lunden, A.B. Gustavus Adolphus, 1922; B.D. Northwestern Lutheran Theological, 1927; A.M. Minnesota, 1930. "Changes in Structure and Mobility of Western Universities." 1933. *Harvard*.
- Cheng Fu Lung, A.B. Stanford. "History of Chinese Social Thought." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Helen Irene McCobb, A.B. Allegheny, 1927; A.M. Iowa State, 1928. "Regional Study of Folkways." *North Carolina*.
- Curtis MacDougall, A.B. Ripon, 1923; M.S. Northwestern, 1926. "A Social Psychological Study of Hoaxes, Fakes, Forgeries, etc." 1933. *Wisconsin*.
- Helen Gregory MacGill, A.B. British Columbia, 1925; A.M. Chicago, 1927. "The Human-Interest Story in the Newspaper." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Kenneth H. McGill, A.B. Nebraska, 1930. "Methods of Delineating the Boundaries of Metropolitan Regions." 1933. *Michigan*.
- Henry Jared McGuinn, A.B. Virginia, 1922; A.M. Columbia, 1927. "The Legal and Political Activities of Negroes in an American City." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Henry D. McKay, A.B. Dakota Wesleyan, 1923. "The Development of Personality Traits." 1932. *Chicago*.
- Ella Clare McKellar, A.B. Wesleyan, 1907; A.M. Georgia, 1917. "A Study of Historical Lags in Religious Culture." 1934. *Duke*.
- John Miller MacLachlan, A.B. Millsaps, 1930; A.M. North Carolina, 1932. "Social-Economic Analysis of Mississippi." 1934. *North Carolina*.
- Dallas Mallison, A.B. Atlantic Christian, 1929; M.S. North Carolina, 1931. "The Social Areas of Otsego County, New York, 1920-1930." 1933. *Cornell*.
- Arthur Mangus, A.B. Illinois Wesleyan, 1927; A.M. Chicago, 1929. "The Influence of Certain Parental Traits upon the Marital Choice and Adjustment of Sons and Daughters." 1934. *Wisconsin*.
- Charles F. Marden, A.B. Dartmouth, 1923; A.M. Columbia, 1926. "Sociological Study of Men's Service Clubs." 1934. *Columbia*.

- R. R. Martin, A.B., A.M. Washington, 1928, 1929. "A Regional Study of the Inland Empire Region." 1933. *Washington*.
- Jitsuichi Masuoka, A.B. College of Emporia, 1928; A.M. Hawaii, 1931. "The Westernization of the Japanese Family in Hawaii." 1935. *Iowa*.
- William Green Mather, Jr., B.S. Denison, 1924; B.D. Rochester Divinity, 1927; M.S. Cornell, 1932. "Normal Family Life." 1934. *Cornell*.
- Ellen Nathalie Matthews, A.B., A.M. Radcliffe. "The Illegally Employed Minor and the Workmen's Compensation Law." 1933. *Columbia*.
- M. Taylor Matthews, B.S. East Tennessee State Teachers, 1926; Ed.M. Harvard, 1928. "Sociological Evaluation of Public Education in an Appalachian Community." 1933. *Teachers College, Columbia University*.
- Ralph Achilles Mautone, A.B. Wesleyan, 1915; B.D. Drew Theological, 1916; A.M. Lehigh, 1918. "The Protestant Church as a Factor in the Assimilation of the Italian Immigrant in the United States." 1933. *Northwestern*.
- Helen Mayers, A.B. Cornell, 1924. "An Analysis of the Socio-Economic Philosophy Underlying the Social Work Movement." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Charles Robert Metzger, A.B., A.M. Indiana, 1926, 1928. "Divorce Legislation in Indiana." 1934. *Indiana*.
- Charles Huldreich Zwingli Meyer, B.D. McCormick Theological, 1924; A.B. Luther, 1930. "Spirituals: A Sociological Study." 1933. *Northwestern*.
- Edward W. Montgomery, A.B. Parsons, 1921; A.M. Chicago, 1928. "Urbanization of Rural Recreation." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Harriet R. Mowrer, Ph.B., A.M. Chicago, 1921, 1922. "The Relation of Personality Disorganization to Domestic Discord." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Edith Mozorosky, A.B. Reed, 1923. "Truancy in an Interstitial Urban Area." 1934. *New York University School of Education*.
- Th. W. Mueller, A.B. Adelbert, 1920; A.M. Western Reserve, 1921. "Songs as Forms of Expressive Behavior." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Anders Mattson Myhrman, A.B. Minnesota, 1920; A.M. Pennsylvania, 1925. "The Swedish Nationality Movement in Finland." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Robert B. Navin, A.B. John Carroll University; D.D. Gregorian College, Rome. "Housing Programs in American Cities." 1934. *Catholic University of America*.
- Wayne C. Neeley, A.B. Parsons, 1927; A.M. Iowa State, 1929. "The Development and Social Significance of the Agricultural Fair." 1933. *Columbia*.
- Raymond E. Nelson, A.B. Carleton, 1925; A.M. Chicago, 1929. "Community Delinquency Index." 1934. *Chicago*.
- Charles S. Newcomb, A.B. Southern California, 1925; A.M. Chicago, 1930. "Age and Sex Distribution as Index of Community Organization." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Ruth G. Newcomb, A.B. Occidental, 1925; A.M. Chicago, 1929. "Occupational Prestige." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Charles Norman, A.B. Stanford, 1927. "A Comparative Study of Propaganda

- Technique, as Revealed in the History and Practice of Certain Minority Group Organizations." 1933. *Stanford*.
- Kalervo Oberg, A.B. British Columbia, 1928; A.M. Pittsburgh, 1930. "The Social Economy of the Tlingit Indians." 1934. *Chicago*.
- Morris Edward Opler, A.B., A.M. Buffalo, 1929, 1930. "Social Organization of the Chiricahua and Mescalero Apache." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Teruye Otsuki, A.B. Willamette, 1930; A.M. Columbia, 1931. "Leadership: A Study of Its Changing Status." 1934. *Columbia*.
- James G. Patrick, A.B. Spokane, 1920; A.M. Washington State, 1922. "The Rôle of Intimate Groups in the Personality Development of Selected Students." 1933. *Southern California*.
- Alfred M. Paxson, A.M. Pennsylvania State, 1928. "Relationship of the Open Country Population of Onondaga County, New York, to the Villages and Cities." 1933. *Cornell*.
- H. Earl Pemberton, A.B. Willamette, 1928; A.M. Oregon, 1931. "Some Statistical Indices of Social Distance." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Oliver A. Peterson, A.B. North Dakota, 1926. "Development of Community Organization of Leisure Time Activity in New York City." 1934. *Columbia*.
- Louis Petroff, A.B. Wisconsin, 1926; A.M. Southern California, 1929. "Social Psychology of Solitude." 1934. *Southern California*.
- Webster Powell, A.B. Williams, 1919; A.M. Harvard, 1926. "A Comparative Study of Regular and Irregular Employment among Industrial Workers with Special Reference to Dependency and Family Budget." 1934. *Minnesota*.
- D. E. Proctor, Ph.B. Denison, 1923; A.M. Brown, 1924. "The Texas Baptist Pastor: A Study of Institutional Leadership." 1933. *Chicago*.
- John Henry Provinse, LL.B., Ph.B., A.M. Chicago, 1925, 1928, 1930. "Law and Government among the North American Indians." 1934. *Chicago*.
- Thomas Marion Pryor, A.B., A.M. Michigan, 1926, 1927; S.T.B. Boston, 1929. "Selective Processes in a Blighted Area of Detroit." 1933. *Michigan*.
- Leo Leslie Redmond, A.B. Washburn, 1914; A.M. Kansas, 1923. "An Analysis of the Nature and Modification of the American Concepts of Social Evolution since 1895." 1933. *Nebraska*.
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- Avis C. Wiggins, A.B. Abilene Christian, 1929. "The City Adjustment of Rural Girl Migrants." 1933. *Vanderbilt*.

- J. Carlton Wilds, A.B. Iowa, 1932. "Individual Treatment of Offenders." 1933. *Iowa*.
- James B. Wilkinson, B.S. Detroit Teachers, 1925. "Relation of Health to Achievement of Intermediate School Students." 1933. *Michigan State College*.
- Phyllis H. Williams. "Religious Mores of South Italians in New Haven." 1933. *Yale*.
- Robert Williams, A.B. Pittsburgh, 1931. "Religious Change in Socius Development." 1933. *Pittsburgh*.
- Grace E. Wilson, A.B. Denver, 1931. "Natural History of Trinity Church, Denver." 1933. *Denver*.
- Janie L. Wilson, A.B. Shaw, 1928. "The Effects of the Depression on the Continuity of Negro Family Life in Harlem." 1933. *New York University, Graduate School*.
- Walter C. Wilson, A.B. Nevada, 1931. "Federal Farm Loan System in Last Decade." 1933. *Clark*.
- William John Winter, A.B. Arizona, 1928. "The Atlatl in the Americas." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Clarence Wittler, A.B. Creighton. "A Study of Adolescent and Pre-Adolescent Traits by the Method of Successive Short Samples." 1933. *Catholic University of America*.
- George M. D. Wolfe, A.B. Clark, 1927. "The 'Bintel Brief' as an Immigrant Institution and as a Source for Research Material." 1933. *Graduate School for Jewish Social Work*.
- Olinda Wolff, B.S. Illinois, 1933. "Cultural and Social Adjustments in a Small City." 1934. *Illinois*.
- W. G. Wood, A.B. Illinois Wesleyan, 1927. "Change in Personal Names in Selected Groups." 1933. *Illinois*.
- George K. T. Wu, A.B. Yenching, 1928. "The Cultural Concept in Contemporary Sociology." 1933. *Southern California*.
- George Dempster Yinger, A.B. Albion, 1929. "Relationship of Family Rôle to Church Interest and Membership." 1933. *Northwestern*.
- Theodore Yoder, A.B. Southern Methodist, 1927. "A Plan for a Social Survey of Cairo, Egypt." 1933. *Columbia*.
- H. Torrence Young, A.B. New York, 1932. "Negative Eugenics and Crime Prevention." 1933. *New York University, Graduate School*.
- Eva R. Younge, A.B. Alberta, 1930. "Rural-Social Organization in the Peace River Country." 1933. *McGill*.
- Bertha M. Zahren, Ph.B. Chicago, 1927. "Auto or Tourist Camps as an Institution." 1933. *Chicago*.
- Jose M. Zapata, A.B. Puerto Rico, 1929. "The Farmstead System in Puerto Rico: A Social Experiment." 1933. *Columbia*.
- Ada Zeidelman (Kafer), B.S. Pennsylvania, 1921. "A Study of Vocational Guidance in a Family Welfare Agency." 1933. *Graduate School for Jewish Social Work*.

## NEWS AND NOTES

*Personnel Exchange.*—The Personnel Exchange, which has been running in the *Journal* for more than a year, is omitted from this issue primarily to conserve space. Attention is called to the fact that the complete list as printed in the issue of May, 1933, is available as a reprint, and copies will be mailed to any member of the Society on request. In this major emergency it is urged that the attention of administrative officers be called to the list of available sociologists. The editors of the *Journal* will undertake to forward promptly all correspondence addressed to the persons listed.

*Membership of the American Sociological Society.*—The new members received into the Society since the May issue and up to May 15 are as follows:

Chen, Ren-Bing, 1078 West Thirty-fifth St., Los Angeles, Calif.  
Clare, Tom, 26 North Fourteenth St., Belleville, Ill.  
Connor, Jerome A., 6406 Minerva Ave., Chicago  
Dennis, May E., 7245 Zephyr Place, Maplewood, Mo.  
Fastov, Charles, Room 2, 239 East Broadway, New York City  
Field, Elizabeth, 6833 Scanlan Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Foreman, Paul Breck, 1058 East Nineteenth St., Eugene, Ore.  
Gillis, Paul McBride, 316 Welsh Ave., Wilmerding, Pa.  
Grosberg, Rosalind, Morris House, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.  
Harris, Whitney R., 4402 Fortieth St., Seattle, Wash.  
Jewett, Cora-Mae, 701 Missouri, Columbia, Mo.  
Krassovsky, Collerohe, 1330 Wilmot Ave., Ann Arbor, Mich.  
Lillywhite, B. Alden, 6021 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago  
Meng, T. C., John Jay Hall, Columbia University, New York City  
Miller, Paul R., State Reformatory, Lincoln, Neb.  
Nearing, Scott, Ridgewood, N.J.  
Novak, Mrs. B. Z., 6633 Alamo Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Peterson, Virginia M., 1504 East Walnut St., Columbia, Mo.  
Pierce, Victoria, 3946 Sullivan Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Scott, Samuel Fischer, 215 South Eutaw St., Baltimore, Md.  
Stone, H. E., Assistant Dean of Men, University of California, Los Angeles, Calif.  
Symons, Joseph Nathaniel, 6021 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago

Taylor, E. A., Box 424, Athens, Ohio

Thurrow, Mildred B., Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

Ussher, Sydney R., c/o School of Education, New York University, Washington Square East, New York City

Wood, Loring, 2909 Brandywine St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Wormer, Grace, Library, State University of Iowa, Iowa City

*American Sociological Society.*—The attention of the readers of the *Journal* is called to the addition of new names to the list of advisory editors. At the annual meeting of 1932 the report of a special committee on publications was adopted, directing the executive committee to choose the new advisory editors, subject to the approval of the University of Chicago Press. This action was immediately approved by the Press, and the new members were accordingly chosen by the executive committee of the American Sociological Society. The new names include Clarence M. Case, F. Stuart Chapin, Earle E. Eubank, Frank H. Hankins, Robert M. MacIver, R. D. McKenzie, Pitirim A. Sorokin, and Kimball Young. The editorial staff of the *Journal* cordially welcomes the co-operation of these scholars and expects that their counsel and judgment will enable us to improve our contribution to the science of sociology.

The annual meeting of the American Sociological Society will be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, December 27-30. The headquarters of the Society will be in the Hotel Adelphia. Professor Carl Kelsey is chairman of the local committee on arrangements.

The following members of the Society have been appointed by President E. B. Reuter to the Committee on Nominations: J. E. Cutler, Western Reserve University, chairman; Howard W. Odum, University of North Carolina; E. S. Bogardus, University of Southern California; F. E. Lumley, Ohio State University; H. A. Phelps, University of Pittsburgh; Thorsten Sellin, University of Pennsylvania; J. H. Kolb, University of Wisconsin; Neva R. Deardorff, New York; C. W. Hart, University of Iowa; Malcolm Willey, University of Minnesota. Members of the Society are invited to submit recommendations to the members of this Committee.

*Chinese Sociological Bulletin.*—The first edition of the *Chinese Sociological Bulletin*, published at Cheeloo University, Tsinan, Shantung, China, appeared in March, 1933. This is a monthly publication, edited by Dr. Yu Tinn-Hugh, to supply a summary in the English language of current sociological developments in China. It contains, in condensed form,

materials from the various Chinese periodicals, especially from the sociological publications. Subscription price, three dollars in Chinese currency by International Postal Money Order.

*Citizens' councils for constructive economy.*—In accordance with a recommendation made by a conference of seventy citizens, selected by national organizations representing agriculture, business, government, education, and public welfare, which met in Washington on January 5, 1933, at the call of the President of the United States, the National Municipal League proposes the formation of a Citizens' Council in every municipality and county to work for the maintenance of essential community services and for constructive economy in local and state government. For further information write Howard P. Jones, National Municipal League, 309 East Thirty-fourth Street, New York City.

*Conference of southern leaders.*—A conference of southern leaders was held on April 7-8, 1933, at the University of North Carolina under the auspices of the American Library Association and the Southeastern Library Association to consider primarily the status of libraries, books, and reading in the South. Among those participating were representatives from departments of history, education, economics, psychology, and sociology. The place of the library in the southern scene, the meaning of library service, and the state and local agencies concerned with giving this service were discussed as were also the methods of bringing about their establishment.

*Eastern Sociological Conference.*—The fourth meeting of the Conference, held at Philadelphia on April 22 and 23, was attended by 106 members. The Conference departed from its previous custom of holding one meeting, substituting therefor six seminars which reported to the Conference as a whole at the final meeting. As a result of this joint discussion the Executive Committee was asked to appoint a permanent committee to study the introductory course in sociology.

Seminars were conducted on the following subjects: "Research and Statistics," "Content of the Introductory Course," "Courses in the Undergraduate Curriculum of Sociology," "Social Psychology," and "Current Developments in Sociology."

Officers for the coming year are Dr. R. M. MacIver, president; Dr. Donald Young, vice-president; Dr. Harold A. Phelps, secretary-treasurer. Dr. Howard Becker was elected to the Executive Committee.



The fifth meeting of the Conference will be held April 21 and 22, 1934, at Harvard University.

*Indiana Association of Economists and Sociologists.*—The annual meeting of the Indiana Association of Economists and Sociologists was held at Terre Haute, Indiana, on April 28 and 29. The following officers were elected for next year: Professor Lester M. Jones, De Pauw University, president; Professor Dean Long, Evansville College, vice-president; Professor William A. Neiswanger, De Pauw University, secretary-treasurer.

*Institute of Race Relations.*—The Institute of Race Relations will be held, under the auspices of the Committee on Race Relations of the Society of Friends, at Swarthmore College, July 1-30, 1933. The object of the Institute is the scientific and realistic understanding of social factors involved in race relations and, particularly, Negro-white relations in America. The course of study will fall under the following general divisions: (1) races and cultures: (a) the theory and significance of race, (b) race as a world-problem, (c) racial groups and racial minorities in America; (2) the American Negro: (a) cultural and historical factors, (b) biological factors, (c) social factors; (3) race relations: (a) situations and problems, (b) techniques. For further information write to the Institute of Race Relations, 20 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

*Social Science Research Council.*—The Social Science Research Council announces the award of forty-two grants-in-aid of research, fifteen new fellowship appointments, two fellowship reappointments for periods of one year, and two fellowship extensions for less than one year. The grants-in-aid totaled \$19,290; the fellowships, \$49,000.

The grants-in-aid were awarded to assist mature scholars in the completion of research projects already well under way. The fellowships were designed to afford opportunity for research training, preferably interdisciplinary in nature, rather than to assist in the carrying-out of research projects as such. They were open to citizens of the United States and of Canada not over thirty-five years of age who possessed the Ph.D. or its equivalent in research training and experience.

The closing date for the receipt of applications for grants-in-aid for the academic year 1934-35 will be February 1, 1934; for fellowship applications, December 1, 1933. In order to facilitate the filing of applications on the proper blanks before the closing dates, it is requested that persons interested communicate with the Secretary for Fellowships and Grants-in-Aid, 230 Park Avenue, New York, New York, as early in the fall of

1933 as possible. The first letter of inquiry should include a brief statement of the candidate's proposed plan of work and of his academic and professional record.

The appointments for the academic year 1933-34 whose projects are of interest to sociologists are:

#### GRANTS-IN-AID

Nels Anderson, instructor in sociology, Seth Low Junior College, to aid in the completion of a study of social change in a Mormon community.

John M. Cooper, professor of anthropology, Catholic University of America, to aid in the completion of a study of the ethnology of the James Bay area.

E. Merton Coulter, professor of history, University of Georgia, to aid in the completion of a study of the planter civilization of coastal Georgia.

Nathan P. Feinsinger, assistant professor of law, University of Wisconsin, to aid in the completion of a study of divorce-law administration in England.

J. P. Guilford, associate professor of psychology, University of Nebraska, to aid in the completion of a study of the consistency and intercorrelation of certain traits of behavior said to belong to the extrovert and introvert pattern of personality in normal and in pathological subjects.

Leonard C. Helderman, associate professor of history, Washington and Lee University, to aid in the completion of a study of George Tucker as a social scientist of the Old South.

Melville J. Herskovits, associate professor of anthropology, Northwestern University, to aid in the completion of an ethnographic account of the Negroes of Dahomey, West Africa.

Vernon Jones, associate professor of psychology, Clark University, to aid in the completion of a study of the interrelations among various objective measures of moral behavior in school children and the influence of certain environmental factors upon such behavior.

Eugene M. Kayden, professor of economics, University of the South, to aid in the completion of a study of the co-operative movement in Russia, 1865-1932.

Susan M. Kingsbury, professor of social economy, Bryn Mawr College, to aid in the editing of the records of the Virginia Company of London.

Alpheus T. Mason, associate professor of politics, Princeton University, to aid in the completion of a study of Mr. Justice Brandeis as a student of social and economic science.

Robert A. McKennan, instructor in sociology, Dartmouth College, to aid in the completion of an ethnographic study of a Kutchin group of Athabascan Indians in Alaska.

Ernest R. Mowrer, assistant professor of sociology, Northwestern University, to aid in the completion of a study of the ecology and trend of family disorganization in a metropolitan community (Chicago).

Ronald L. Olson, associate professor of anthropology, University of Cali-

fornia, to aid in the completion of a study of the social organization of the Tlingit Indians of Southeast Alaska.

Max Sasuly, lecturer, American University, to aid in the completion of a study of principles and techniques of population analysis.

Francis B. Simkins, associate in social science, State Teachers College, Farmville, Virginia, to aid in the completion of a study of a social history of the women of the Confederacy.

Keith Sward, professor of psychology, Pennsylvania College for Women, to aid in the completion of a study of Jewish temperament, musicality, physiognomy, and motivation.

Paul S. Taylor, associate professor of economics, University of California, to aid in the completion of a study of co-operatives and barter exchanges among the unemployed.

Raymond R. Willoughby, associate editor, *Psychological Abstracts*, to aid in the completion of a study of the influence of age, duration of marriage, and number of children upon neuroticism.

#### FELLOWSHIPS

Nathaniel Cantor, assistant professor of social science, University of Buffalo, for a study of penal administration in Germany (three months' extension of 1932-33 fellowship).

W. Rex Crawford, assistant professor of sociology, University of Pennsylvania, for a study of the philosophic basis and presupposition of sociology, to be carried on chiefly in France and Germany.

Calvert L. Dedrick, research assistant in sociology, University of Wisconsin, for a study of urban social processes, to be carried on in the United States.

Harold F. Dorn, fellow, department of sociology and anthropology, University of Wisconsin, for a study of the application of recently developed statistical techniques to social data, to be carried on in the United States and England.

Edward P. Hutchinson, student, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for a study of occupational mobility and migration of the tuberculous in Sweden.

Albert Lepawsky, research assistant and instructor in political science, University of Chicago, for a study of the government of European metropolitan regions, to be carried on in England and Germany.

Charles P. Loomis, assistant and tutor in sociology, Harvard University, for a study of the typological method of research in sociology, to be carried on in Germany.

Elio D. Monachesi, formerly instructor in sociology, University of Minnesota, for a study of treatment of criminal offenders in Italy (one-year extension of 1932-33 fellowship).

Stanley S. Newman, formerly Yale Sterling Fellow, for a study of individual versus group reactions to the primary symbolism of speech sounds (one-year extension of 1932-33 fellowship).

Morris Ploscowe, formerly research assistant, National Commission on Law

Observance and Enforcement, for a study of European and American preliminary procedural processes in criminal prosecutions, to be carried on in England (five months' extension of 1931-32 fellowship).

Sylvia L. Thrupp, Metcalfe student, London School of Economics, for a study of the sociological approach to historical evidence, to be carried on in the United States.

*Social Work and Educational Problems in Germany.*—A series of papers containing news items and information on the present conditions in social work and educational problems in Germany is being edited by Dr. Ruth Weiland of the Deutsche Zentrale für freie Jugendwohlfahrt. The following subjects will be treated in the first six numbers: (1) "Federal and State Legislation in the Field of Child Welfare," (2) "The Responsibility of Local Authorities for Needy Individuals," (3) "The Importance of Sick Invalid and Old Age Insurance for the Economically Weak," (4) "Welfare for the Unemployed in Practice," (5) "Development and Extent of Social Welfare in Country Districts," (6) "The Effect of Unemployment on Child and Youth Delinquency." The first number was published May 1, 1933. Subscription for the first six papers is three dollars, payable in advance by postal order to Dr. Ruth Weiland, Berlin-Charlottenburg, Schwarzburg Alle 3, Germany.

*Wellesley Summer Institute for Social Progress.*—The first session of the Wellesley Summer Institute for Social Progress will be held on the campus of Wellesley College July 1-15, 1933. The general theme of the Institute is "What Are the Fundamentals of a Good Social Order and How Can They Be Realized?" The topic for this summer is "Our Economic Future—Its Direction and Control." Among those on the Governing Board are John A. Fitch, Alvin S. Johnson, Robert W. Bruere, and Mary Van Kleeck. For further information write Dr. Alfred D. Sheffield, 31 Madison Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

*University of Chicago.*—Harper and Brothers announce the publication of *Economic Problems of the Family*, by Hazel Kyrk, associate professor of home economics and economics.

*Dartmouth College.*—Assistant Professor William J. Rose is spending his year of sabbatical leave studying the cultural factors involved in the Silesian question, under a grant from the Social Science Research Council. Professor Rose holds a degree from the University of Cracow and is familiar with Polish life, language, and institutions. He has recently delivered lectures in Berlin and Copenhagen on Polish culture history.

Assistant Professor Edwin D. Harvey is the author of *The Mind of China*, published in April by the Yale University Press. This work is the result of many years of study of Chinese civilization while a member of the faculty of the College of Yale in China at Changsha in Hunan.

Assistant Professor Andrew G. Truxal is the author of *Recreation Areas in Real Estate Subdivisions*, to be published by the Harmon Foundation.

Dr. Robert A. McKennan has recently received his degree from the department of anthropology at Harvard University. His dissertation was an ethnographic study of the Indians of the Upper Tanana River in the remote interior of Alaska, with whom Dr. McKennan spent the year from September, 1929, to June, 1930.

Michael E. Choukas, who has charge of the honors work of the sociology majors, is completing his dissertation for the doctorate to be submitted to the department of sociology at Columbia University. His subject is "A Sociological Study of the Theocratic Community of Mount Athos." He visited Greece in 1931 and lived in the monasteries for several months while gathering data on their history and organization.

*University of Florida.*—The department of sociology published, in December, 1932, *A Guide to the Laws of Florida Affecting Child Welfare* as the first edition in their "Sociology Series."

*University of Illinois.*—Harper and Brothers announce the publication of *Principles of Sociology*, by E. T. Hiller, associate professor of sociology.

*Indiana University.*—Harper and Brothers announce the publication of *Social Statistics*, by R. Clyde White, professor of sociology and director of the Bureau of Social Research, Indiana University.

*Luther College.*—Dr. O. M. Norlie, Director of the Hartwick Seminary Graduate School, Brooklyn, has been appointed professor of psychology for the coming year.

*Miami University.*—McGraw-Hill Book Company announce the publication of *Population Trends in the United States*, a "Recent Social Trends Monograph," by Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

*University of Michigan.*—McGraw-Hill Book Company announce the publication of *The Metropolitan Community*, a "Recent Social Trends Monograph," by R. D. McKenzie, chairman of the department of sociology.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce the publication of *Introductory Sociology*, by Charles Horton Cooley, late professor of sociology; Robert C. Angell, associate professor of sociology; and L. J. Carr, assistant professor of sociology.

*University of Minnesota.*—McGraw-Hill Book Company announce the publication of *Communication Agencies and Social Life*, a "Recent Social Trends Monograph," by Malcolm M. Willey, professor of sociology, University of Minnesota, and Stuart A. Rice, professor of sociology and statistics, University of Pennsylvania.

*Municipal University of Omaha.*—The proceedings of the forty-second annual meeting of the Nebraska Academy of Science, held May 6-7, 1932, have been published under the editorship of Dr. T. Earl Sullenger, who has served for the last two years as chairman of the social-science section.

The department announces the completion of the following local studies, "Migratory Youths" and "Truancy."

*Smith College.*—University of North Carolina Press announce the publication of *The Family: A Study of Member Roles*, by Katharine D. Lumpkin, assistant director, Council of Industrial Studies, Smith College.

*Stanford University.*—Mr. Philip Edward Kellar, instructor at the College of the City of New York, has been appointed acting assistant professor of sociology at Stanford University for the year 1933-34. Professor Howard W. Woolston, of the University of Washington, will be at Stanford University during the 1933 summer session as acting professor of sociology. Professor Walter Greenwood Beach of the Stanford University sociology staff will offer courses at the University of Washington during the 1933 summer session; and Professor Charles N. Reynolds will be on the summer teaching staff of the University of Oregon summer session.

*Teachers College, Columbia University.*—McGraw-Hill Book Company announce the publication of *Rural Social Trends*, a "Recent Social Trends Monograph," by Edmund de S. Brunner, professor of education, Teachers College, and J. H. Kolb, professor of rural sociology, college of agriculture, University of Wisconsin.

*Teachers College, Kansas City, Mo.*—A course in "Urban Sociology" will be given this summer for the first time by Dr. Guy V. Price, chairman of the department of social science. Dr. H. C. Hill, of the University of Chicago, department of education, will be in residence at the summer ses-

sion and will give a course on "Recent Social Trends in the United States." Miss Louise Beth Wilson, director of the department of parent-education, will give a course on "The Family." A course in "Educational Sociology" is being taught jointly by Dr. Price and by Mr. Arthur W. Gilbert, the former dealing with the principles and problems of a sociological nature relevant to education, and the latter with the sociology of the teaching process.

*University of Washington.*—McGraw-Hill Book Company announce the publication of *Americans at Play: Recent Trends in Recreation and Leisure Time Activities*, by Jesse F. Steiner, professor of sociology.

*Yenching University, Peiping, China.*—Routledge and Sons Company, London, announce the publication of *Political Philosophy of Confucianism*, by Dr. Leonard T. Hsu, professor of sociology, and the University of California Press announce the publication of *Sun Yat-Sen: His Social and Political Ideals*, also by Dr. Hsu.

#### PERSONAL NOTES

Dr. J. E. W. Wallin calls attention to the omission in the article by L. D. Zeleny on "Feeble-mindedness and Criminal Conduct," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXVIII (1932-33), 564-76, of any mention of his publications on the subject. Dr. Wallin rejected the twelve-year standard as early as 1916, and the problem is discussed in his book on *Problems of Subnormality*, published in 1917, and in numerous publications since that date. The omission by Zeleny of these references is explained by the fact that his article was a condensation of a fuller treatment prepared as a doctor's thesis.

University of North Carolina Press announce the publication of *The Tragedy of Lynching*, by Arthur Raper, research and field secretary, Commission on Interracial Co-operation.

## BOOK REVIEWS

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*A Study of a Community and Its Groups and Institutions Conceived of as Behaviors of Individuals.* By RICHARD LOUIS SCHANCK. "Psychological Monographs." Princeton: Psychological Review Co., 1932. Pp. 133.

*Further Contributions to the Prestige Value of Public Employment.* By LEONARD D. WHITE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xvii+88. \$1.50.

*The Attitude of the Jewish Student in the Colleges and Universities towards His Religion: A Social Study of Religious Changes.* By MARVIN NATHAN. New York: Bloch Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 264. \$2.00.

These long-titled studies have in common the attempt to obtain reliable knowledge by studying the "attitudes" of people, the first, largely by using the technique of the "participative observer" and interview; the other two, by using the well-known questionnaire, the schedules occupying five and four printed pages respectively. White's study is based upon 7,168 schedules scattered over the whole country, Nathan's on 1,500 out of 3,700 sent to 57 colleges throughout the country. All things else being equal, the samples would seem to be numerically adequate and generally representative.

In a title as long as Schanck's, one more little word wouldn't do us any harm. If "verbal" were inserted before "behaviors," we should know the real nature of his study. If he had spent as much time and effort in finding out what the people in Elm Hollow *actually do* as he did in finding out what they think, or *said* they think, about what is done, or should be done, we might know something about the real social phenomena of Elm Hollow. He appears to have a prepotent reflex to demonstrate the ecological and group "fallacies" and the general inadequacy of sociological efforts to study social data "scientifically." He does admit, however (p. 126), "The use of the group as a unit for convenience sake is fairly apparent. It is a short cut method of expression but, even so, seems based upon some realistic data." What he fails to see and say is that "the individual" as a unit is just as much a concept as is a "group." The "individual fallacy" is just as much and as little fallacious as the "group fallacy," and for the



same reasons. He makes a distinction between public and private attitudes and says most of the criticism of attitude studies applies chiefly to the latter, which is probably true; but it is also true that public verbal "attitudes," even when quite stable, are frequently not highly correlated with the actual adjustment behavior of the subjects. How nearly would another investigator duplicate Mr. Schanck's "private" attitudes? If several could do so, substantially, the "private" attitudes would then become "public" (objective) for scientific purposes, though they still would have little significance for the understanding of the social life of Elm Hollow since they do not result in social adjustment interaction.

White's nation-wide study confirms his earlier Chicago study showing that the prestige value is greater for private than for public employment, for federal than state, for state than municipal. Females, the young, the uneducated, the foreigners, the unskilled, attached more prestige to public employment than do the antitheses of these classes. While the questionnaire approach seems more valid in this sort of research, frankly dealing with verbal statements of values, one wonders whether some objective criteria could not be used, such as applications for employment, public honors given, differential treatment of traffic violators, changes from one kind of employment to the other, etc. Prestige value that does not eventuate in actual adjustment behavior is very vague. People frequently make derogatory remarks about the Senate in general, for example, but kow-tow to all senators and try hard to become one.

Nathan's study asked students to tell both what they do and think. It is difficult to tell whether they really do what they say they do, and whether their reports of what they say they think would be duplicated in a subsequent study. There is some evidence that a 25 or 30 per cent differential exists in the stability of questionnaire response even when there has been no substantial change in the data.

However, the study seems to show that about 60 per cent of the students regard God as an impersonal entity and about 6 per cent are atheists; about 20 per cent have their religious life deepened or unchanged by the university and at least one-half of the breaking-away from earlier instruction occurs in high school or before. The whole picture is one of religious confusion, indifference, and uncertainty. A good deal of the book consists of religious theory and exhortation of a high order, imbued with real prophetic zeal. Probably the picture for Christian, at least for Protestant, students would not be greatly different. The conclusion is that there is grave need for a sociological redefinition of religion.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY  
OXFORD, OHIO

READ BAIN

*Genetic Principles in Medicine and Social Science.* By LANCELOT HOGBEN. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1932. Pp. 230. \$3.75.

This book is an extremely valuable contribution to the social-biological literature. The limited applicability of the experimental techniques in dealing with mankind, together with the facts that human families are very small and the interval between generations is very long, has retarded the advance of objective and verifiable knowledge. Most of the writing on eugenics and the various aspects of human genetics has been without any reasonably sure basis of fact. This body of literature has been for the most part a superstructure erected upon a foundation of wishes, guesses, biases, and analogies. In the present volume the author undertakes to separate the little that is known and demonstrable from the great mass of popular and pseudo-scientific writing. Beyond this he undertakes to present the line of research in this field that may be and is being carried on with the promise of scientific results. The book deserves very careful reading by both the biological and the sociological students.

E. B. REUTER

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

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*The Exchange of Minorities: Bulgaria, Greece, and Turkey.* By STEPHEN P. LADAS. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xi+849. \$6.00.

The so-called "problem of national minorities" which vexes so sorely the states of Central Europe and the Near East is a problem of intercultural contacts peculiar to the age of nationalism. In the social tensions and conflicts prevalent in classical civilization and in the medieval and early modern phases of Western culture, divergencies of language played little part. Differences of race and language constituted no obstacle to peace and order in the heterogeneous and cosmopolitan political structures of past centuries. Only when the Western peoples—and after them the Eastern peoples—identified themselves as "nations" and devised patriotic symbols to promote political solidarity did the minority problem in its modern form become acute. The patriot's demand for national unity led to governmental efforts to compel all within the national frontiers to conform to the dominant linguistic and cultural patterns. By the same token, the minority patriot's insistence upon preserving the identity of his group led to resistance, irredentism, and demands for autonomy and "self-determination." The various "solutions" of the problem which have been devised—forcible assimilation in pre-war Europe, international pro-

tection against assimilation in post-war Europe, etc.—have achieved only partial success wherever the myths and symbols of ethnocentric nationalism have persisted.

In the Near East, where the problem has been especially grave because of the combination of political and religious tensions, the most radical solution of all was attempted by Bulgaria, Greece, and Turkey after the World War. This solution involved the wholesale uprooting of peoples from their ancestral homes on either side of political frontiers and their transference, bag and baggage, to the territory of the state where their national kinsmen constituted a majority of the population. Some two million people—Greeks in Bulgaria and Turkey as well as Bulgarians and Turks in Greece—were lifted out of their ancient homesites and transplanted to new lands on the other side of the boundary. It is this procedure which Mr. Ladas has undertaken to describe in great detail in his scholarly volume. His excellent style, his penetrating analyses, his ample documentation, and his skill in marshalling the facts in interesting fashion combine to make the study a model of painstaking research. The volume, however, necessarily suffers from the limitations inherent in the departmental cleavages in the social sciences. The author is a political scientist and a student of international politics. He is on safe ground when he writes of treaties and conventions and of the international-law aspects of his problem. He is less certain of himself when he considers the economic effects of exchanging populations, though he discusses them in considerable detail. He is least sure of himself when he discusses the social and psychological phases of the events described—so much so that these phases are largely neglected though in a broad sense they are of the essence of the problem. The value of his conclusions is lessened by a preoccupation with the immediate subject matter and by a disinclination to generalize and to apply his results to comparable situations. His study is nevertheless an admirably authoritative and definitive treatment of the episodes dealt with, at least in their historical, political, and legal aspects.

It is obvious from this study that the forcible exchange of minorities is not a general solution of the problem which can be applied elsewhere. It is, to be sure, "final," if one makes the dangerous assumption of the finality of existing frontiers. But it involves an amount of material suffering and destitution among the populations affected out of all proportion to the psychic and political gains achieved. It is less a principle or a policy than a political expedient designed, in the cases where it was applied, to put an end to generations of oppression and conflict. It accepts the nationalist assumption that linguistic and cultural homogeneity is indispensable to

the security of the nation-state. The confused intermingling of language groups in Central Europe renders any such solution unworkable there. In the last analysis, the problem, like all the problems created by nationalism, demands for its solution not makeshift expedients, but a removal of its causes, i.e., a modification of the prevalent attitudes, ideologies, and behavior patterns of nationalism which predispose those infected by it to indulge in socially destructive modes of activity. And this is a task not for jurists and diplomats but for educators, social psychologists, political engineers, and revolutionaries.

FREDERICK L. SCHUMAN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*A Sociological Analysis of Certain Types of Patriotism: A Study of Certain Patriotic Attitudes, Particularly as These Appear in Peace-Time Controversies in the United States.* By EARLE L. HUNTER. New York: Paul Maisel Co., 1932. Pp. 263.

The thesis of this work is that the attitudes that operate in peace-time controversies under the guise of patriotism have much more narrowly limited objectives than the totality of country, and that a basis for evaluation of those attitudes must consequently be found, other than considering them as instances of a general devotion to country as a whole.

The materials which were analyzed for the purpose of defining types of "patriotic" attitudes were published expressions (especially newspaper editorials and letters to the editors) in the controversies and discussions over the "D.A.R. blacklist"; over the naval construction programs of 1927-28; over the Federal Trade Commission's 1928 investigation of public utilities' propaganda; and over the religious issue in the presidential campaign of 1928. The "types" of attitudes are ideal constructs, distinct from each other in that "attitudes of one do not imply necessarily attitudes of any other type" (p. 38). Six types of peace-time patriotism are distinguished. After the definition and exemplification of each type, and the demonstration that attitudes of this type may be considered as patriotic, there follows the formulation of hypotheses as to its social significance by correlating "the attitude-value complexes with other social data; that is, with the actual social conditions that seem to attend the occurrence and functioning of the types of behavior" (p. 41). These hypotheses are put forth with tentativeness, which is appropriate, inasmuch as the procedure by which they are arrived at is so largely that of logical implication, and as they cover far wider fields than the data presented.

Finally, the analysis seeks to determine what in each attitude-type can be assimilated to the common notion of patriotism and, in so far as "patriotic" attitudes do not correspond to that notion, how they can be described and evaluated. It is found that so-called loyalties to country are rather "loyalties to specific aspects of country" (p. 249); and that since loyalties are directed to specific ends and since the areas of social life adequate to the satisfaction of these interests (communities) are, for some interests, smaller than country, overlap the limits of country for others, and for still others, are world wide, therefore "loyalties are clearly definable . . . only in terms of actual community activity" (p. 250). The effects of loyalties upon community interests are the valid measures of their social worth. The author does not prescribe any particular standard for evaluating these effects, but seeks to demonstrate that the application of these attitudes to any standard of values may be guided by attention upon these effects.

It is shown that special-interest groups frequently win others' loyalty to their own ends by appealing to sentimentalized symbols of country. The response to these symbols (which is thus shown to be effective) is in this work distinguished from loyalty to the genuine interests of the totality symbolized. This distinction is important. But it hardly justifies the position of the author (p. 250) that "patriotism" should be abandoned as a scientific term; for it can be used to designate such sentimental attachment to symbols of country, the conditions of whose rise and variations, and whose effects, provide scientific problems. The use of the term "patriotism" need not lead scientific discussion into passing favorable judgments, or any other value-judgments, upon such sentiments.

The work provides an intelligent critique of patriotism as an objective of education. Its application of the ideal-type method is worthy of attention.

HARMON HAYES

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*The Written Constitution and the Unwritten Attitude.* By CHARLES EDWARD MERRIAM. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1931. Pp. 89. \$1.00.

The dynamic relations of the written Constitution and the "unwritten attitude" which, together, make the actual government, is the theme of this little volume. Fundamental changes have occurred, with and without formal amendment, and similar developments may be expected in the

years ahead. The ascendancy of the federal government, the decline of the state, and the rise of the metropolitan center foreshadow basic structural modifications; the growing interest of the United States in international affairs may necessitate the reconstitution of the treaty-making power; political parties, because of their increasingly national character, will likely be brought under federal regulation; the influence of organized propaganda and lobbying by special interests may be expected to grow, but this will not in itself involve formal constitutional changes. The discussion shows that revolutionary transformations of political power could occur within the framework of the Constitution as it now stands, and implies, though it does not explicitly assert, that a fascist, communist, or socialist régime could be established through such a process.

SEBA ELDRIDGE

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

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*Origin and History of Politics.* By W. C. MACLEOD. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1931. Pp. xv+504. \$3.75.

This study is largely a descriptive account of political patterns to be found in various cultures. The first part deals with the origins and nature of political organization especially among primitive peoples, to which are added similar considerations with regard to feudalistic Europe, Japan, and China. The second part is devoted to the political development of Europe and America "in particular." Here we find political forms, particularly those of representative government and federalism, examined in social orders ranging all the way from the city-states of the early Mediterranean to the modern states of the contemporary scene. Incidentally, two pages each are devoted to Russia, 1918-31, and to the Fascist movement in Italy.

Professor MacLeod brings to the study of politics materials and methods developed in anthropology and ethnology, and in its innovative respect such a procedure is invaluable. But the main purpose of this study, according to the author, is to create "perspective" for American students of political science who, apparently, are so steeped in Anglo-Saxon tradition that they are unable to appreciate institutions other than their own. One, perhaps, may forego a defense of students attending our present-day educational mills; but one cannot refrain from raising the query as to whether a meager knowledge of political patterns in numerous societies will really be a significant aid to viewing the contemporary scene steady

and whole. A realization of the fact that differing cultures have developed diverse organizational patterns does not lead, inevitably, to an understanding of the power complex and pressure processes of the modern world. Nor is the antidote to parish-pump politics to be found, necessarily, in encompassing the universe.

S. MCKEE ROSEN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Fools and Folly during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.* By BARBARA SWAIN. New York: Columbia Press, 1932. Pp. 234.

Most cultures include current or traditional assumptions about human nature or morality, conceptions of the rôle of the normal; occasionally symbols are chosen to express for the given period and culture the attitudes toward human conduct engendered by such preconceptions. The relationship between moral philosophies and their symbolic or dramatic representation is well shown in this study of what might be called the "fool concept" or the "folly complex." The Dance of Death mythus offers another comparable series. It is more than coincidence that its most humane and humanist interpretation was by Holbein, the friend of the humanist Erasmus and also illustrator of that most humane literary treatment of human folly—Erasmus' *The Praise of Folly*. Erasmus seems to have approached a definition of the situation in terms of a divided yet inseparable and integrable human nature, in which, if knowledge is "virtue," "vices" are ignorance or error rather than guilt. "Erasmus' *Praise of Folly* pictured society as a kingdom of fools, but by shifting from one attitude toward folly to another he transformed the fool from a figure cynically denoting man's depravity to an ironic symbol of his composite weakness and strength. Erasmus takes man's situation with gaiety and assumes that he has sufficient vitality himself to digest all his experience eventually into some usable form. But Erasmus' version of human nature did not become common property ["consensus"] in the Europe to which he addressed it. His ironic synthesis [of wisdom and folly] proved highly unstable. "The folly of Erasmus was alone in offering a joint condemnation and defense of man the fool." When ignorance, witlessness, and illusion are bliss, man's folly consists in either wishing or imagining himself *homo sapiens*—let alone in being it. For the sociologist who is capable of accepting historical data, the book further offers new illustrations of ways in which (from gargoyles to Ziegfeld and *Ballyhoo*) impulses repressed by the mores are released in institutionalized license. In view of its erudition,

it is surprising to find in this book no reference to the varieties of fool represented in the traditional Parsifal, and in Punch and Judy; and, on the other hand, to the classical apotheosis and individual characterization of fools by Shakespeare, who surely falls within the Renaissance.

While Erasmus sees madness in man's method, it remained for Shakespeare to find method in his madness.

THOMAS D. ELIOT

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*The Pageant of Civilization.* By ARTHUR G. BRODEUR. New York: Robert M. McBride & Co., 1931. Pp. xxvii+537.

This work—not to call it fool's play—appears to be an attempt to write a book on the past which will commend itself to those whose brains cannot stand a straightforward history or the presentation of naked facts. Their interest is solicited at the start by allusion to Tutenkhamon's tomb, Colonel Lindbergh, and H. G. Wells, and is sustained later by imaginary dialogues between historic personages and descriptions of scenes from the daily life of past civilizations or great events like the Battle of Salamis. In short, the attempt is made to make the past live and to describe it as if present. The seven chapters deal with Egypt, Babylonia, Crete, Assyria and Chaldea, Greece, India, and Rome.

A few quotations will make clearer the book's character and method:

The blacks raised a piercing yell, and swept to the attack. In column of eight, spears raised, they smote the foe, and their blades drank deep [p. 132].

"Follow that man!" she commanded. "Watch where he goes. I will keep the door."

"They will miss thee in the andron, little sparrow."

"Not they. They are blind with drink. Go quickly" [p. 243].

Though the Persian strategy at Marathon was flawless, Miltiades matched their every move, and beat them [p. 258].

LYNN THORNDIKE

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*The Messiah of Ismir: Sabbitai Zevi.* By JOSEF KASTEIN. New York: Viking Press, 1931. Pp. 346. \$3.50.

Sociologists need more books like this. They need dozens and scores of them. Very little is known about the natural history of imposture—more especially religious imposture—which is frequently the cause of very



important social movements. The present book is interesting, even exciting. It is the biography of a seventeenth-century Jew of Smyrna who became the head of the most extensive messianic movement that has occurred in Judaism since the time of Christ. This Jew, Sabbatai Zevi, claimed to be the Jewish Messiah, but was a conscious and deliberate impostor. He was a coward, a liar, a hypocrite, a forger—every kind of a crook and villain except a libertine, though one of his five wives was a notorious harlot and he deliberately encouraged excesses among his followers. He at last turned Mohammedan to save his life when the sultan of Turkey imprisoned him as a dangerous leader of sedition.

The steps by which a man of this character obtained the blind devotion of tens of thousands of intelligent, experienced, and worldly wise Jews in all countries seem not to be different, except in their conscious fraud, from the steps by which genuine religious leaders have founded their sects. A proper analysis of process is a necessary task of sociology. The Dönmecks, a sect of judaizing Mohammedans, still exist to prove (as followers of Zevi) that a publicly exposed impostor can found a sect as successfully as an honest and virtuous man.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*Confessions of the Power Trust.* By CARL D. THOMPSON. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1932. Pp. xx+670. \$5.00.

This book is a condensation of the hearings of a United States Senate subcommittee on public utilities. It is divided into nine parts, dealing with the hearings, also with the organization of utility companies—their financial structure and methods, some typical companies, propaganda methods, the war on public ownership, regulation, and political activities. The author, or rather the compiler, is the secretary of the Public Ownership League of America, and members of that League have been responsible for its publication.

"Think ye that those eighteen upon whom the tower in Siloam fell were sinners above all that dwell in Jerusalem? I tell you, nay." If we were preaching about the type of literature represented by this book, the foregoing quotation from Luke would be our text. The more respectable sort of crank literature abounds in books like this one, and, taken together, such books are of great importance to the sociologist. There would seem to be little or no evidence that the public utilities are any worse than the

banks, the oil companies, or sundry other great corporations. But certain cranks think that public service corporations are the "key issue now in America." A crank, in mechanics, is a twisted tool used to communicate motion. Its power rests upon the fact that it is twisted. A human crank is a person who takes up some one notion and urges it to the exclusion of other things of equal or greater importance. Like the tool, his mind has a twist in it, and, like the tool, his usefulness lies in the fact that he can communicate motion. Cranks, mechanical or human, are useful tools. They get things started. They may be useless or even dangerous after the machine is going, but they seem to be indispensable to the process of starting it. August Comte, the founder of sociology, was a crank. He bored all his friends with his queer positivist religion; but he started the scientific study of society. We need a sociological study of cranks. When we get it, the book under review will furnish source material.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*A Survey of Sociology.* By E. J. Ross. Milwaukee: Bruce Co., 1932. Pp. xxii+570. \$3.50.

This survey is an elementary and systematic study of the field of sociology from a Catholic viewpoint. It might well have been entitled *Catholic Social Science*, for it presents the subject in the light of Christian principles, and studies human society and its complex problems with reference to revelation as well as reason.

Theories and conclusions are founded on Christian postulates, and the author hews close to the line whenever justice or charity come into consideration. The author cites authoritative church documents, and endeavors to show how they integrate with the scientific and advanced thought of modern sociology.

The book should find acceptance as a basic text in Catholic and denominational colleges, and be welcomed in seminaries since the present Pope has enjoined the study of social problems on all candidates for the Catholic priesthood.

The book is enriched by a good Bibliography and suggestions for collateral reading, as well as a questionnaire at the end of each chapter.

FREDERIC SIEDENBURG

UNIVERSITY OF DETROIT

*Ohio Criminal Statistics, 1931.* By an ASSOCIATED GROUP FROM THE INSTITUTE OF LAW AND THE OHIO INSTITUTE. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1932. Pp. xiv + 189. \$2.00.

*Comparative Judicial Criminal Statistics: Six States, 1931.* By LEON C. MARSHALL. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1932. Pp. viii + 61. \$1.00.

These two volumes are milestones on the road to better criminal judicial statistics in the United States. The one on *Ohio Criminal Statistics: 1931* is an "experiment in methods and techniques of state reporting," prepared jointly by the Institute of Law of Johns Hopkins University and the Ohio Institute. It contains statistics of crimes known to the police, crimes cleared by arrest, the work of courts of summary, general and appellate jurisdiction, probation, and other penal statistics. "Its publication," says the Preface, "is believed to be the first occasion on which the criminal statistics of an American state have been placed between the covers of a single report." This is an overstatement. The Massachusetts Department of Correction has for many years—and officially—published annual reports as comprehensive in a way as the Ohio report, which has at least the honor of being the first to follow the pioneer and the very first to be produced on the basis of serious research which aims to achieve standards of uniformity hitherto lacking in judicial criminal statistics. That little attention has been paid to the human element which passes through the hands of the police, the prosecutors, and the judges of Ohio is probably due to the fact that no plan for reporting criminal statistics can easily be built all at once.

The pamphlet on comparative judicial criminal statistics is the result of the untiring and competent work of Dr. L. C. Marshall of the Johns Hopkins Institute of Law to create and instal a uniform system of reporting such statistics. The pamphlet deals with courts of general criminal jurisdiction in Ohio, New Jersey, Iowa, Maryland, Rhode Island, and Delaware. Of those indicted for crime in these states, the percentage eliminated due to failure to establish guilt ranged from 36.8 in New Jersey to 7.9 in Rhode Island. The percentage of those indicted who pleaded guilty or were found guilty (1) of the offense charged ranged from 59.3 in New Jersey to 89.6 in Rhode Island; (2) of a lesser offense ranged from 12.0 in Maryland to 1.2 in Iowa.

THORSTEN SELLIN

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

*The Youthful Offender: A Statistical Study of Crime among the 16-20 Year Age Group in New York City.* By HARRY M. SHULMAN. Report of the Subcommittee on Causes, New York State Crime Commission, 1931. Albany, N.Y., 1933. Pp. 374.

The New York Crime Commission, which has passed out of existence after a decade of work, has been an interesting experiment in penology. It began with a program of unmitigated severity in the treatment of criminals. This thesis gradually weakened, leaving the Commission with no program. In the meantime, the Subcommittee on Causes of Crime has been working quietly during the decade, gathering facts and publishing several excellent reports. The final document of this Subcommittee ends in a plea for programs of prevention and for scientific adjustment of penalties to types of offenders.

This report makes contributions to four aspects of criminology: First, it is a statistical study of the crime rates of the sixteen-to-twenty-year age group in New York City, in comparison with the crime rates of the general population. The study shows that this group, which constitutes 12 per cent of the male population sixteen years of age and over, has 54.5 per cent of the arraignments for auto theft, 30 per cent of the burglaries, 37.5 per cent of the robberies with a gun, and 33.5 per cent of the cases of rape of girls fourteen to eighteen years of age. Between the ages of sixteen and twenty an immense increase in the rate of arraignments for violations of traffic offenses and other minor offenses against health and safety occurs. Serious crimes increase much more slowly, with a tendency to reach a peak at the age of eighteen, though offenses which require boldness or involve sex drive or rage increase consistently to the upper age limit of the group studied. The second contribution is an ecological analysis of 3,963 arraignments for serious crimes by this sixteen-to-twenty-year age group. The analysis shows ten areas with high absolute numbers. It does not present the data in the form of concentric circles. When the data are computed by two-mile zones, with the City Hall as the center, they show a decrease from 25.6 per thousand in the inner zone to 6.9 per thousand in the outer zone, which is consistent except in the fourth zone, which includes the northern part of Harlem, where the trend is reversed. The rates for Manhattan alone, however, do not show the consistent decrease, but remain nearly constant in the first four zones (with the exception of a decrease near Central Park), after which the rate decreases consistently. The data as presented in the report are intended merely to locate the areas which show unusually high rates, without reference to the general pattern

of the city. The third contribution is to the prediction technique. In a study of 110 cases of offenders committed to penal or reformatory institutions, data regarding social backgrounds were tabulated and scores derived. This analysis shows that the severity of the penalty imposed by the court had practically no relationship to the prognosis based on the social background but was determined almost entirely by the nature of the offense. Finally, this report includes a study of the mortality of cases at various stages in the procedure. The report contains, also, data on other aspects of the criminality of this age group. It is an important statistical document.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

EDWIN H. SUTHERLAND

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*Probation and Criminal Justice: Essays in Honor of Herbert C. Parsons.* By SHELDON GLUECK. New York: Macmillan & Co., 1933. Pp. vii+344. \$3.00.

The fifteen chapters of this book were written by American and European administrators and scholars in honor of Herbert C. Parsons, who has been for many years a most influential leader in the development and extension of probation in America. This is a systematic treatise, with approaches from the points of view of history, law, judicial and social-work policies, and administration. The book provides an excellent summary of the material on these aspects of probation, with definite unity in the thought and with a surprisingly large amount of new material. Sketches of the probation system in England, France, Belgium, and Germany by leading authorities for those countries are included.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

EDWIN H. SUTHERLAND

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*The Golden Age of Crime.* By ARTHUR B. REEVE. New York: Mohawk Press, 1932. Pp. 272. \$2.50.

The creator of Craig Kennedy, the scientific detective, issues in this volume a serious warning against the rising menace of rackets. The Capones and the Diamonds collect by their vast machines of terror and crime billions of dollars every year. The hold of the gangs upon the forces of law and order is a strangler's grip. This is a very entertaining book, and it should be a popular one. Reeve has certainly written many

popular books on the subject and, we may guess, not unprofitably. This book is more than entertainment, for Reeve tries to point a way out. We need stern law enforcement, we need a scientific understanding of the nature of crime, and we need "a return to the old moralities." Mr. Reeve does not help us much on solutions, but he does know about crime.

NELS ANDERSON

SETH LOW JUNIOR COLLEGE

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*The Devil in Legend and Literature.* By MAXIMILIAN RUDWIN.  
Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1931. Pp. xi+354. \$3.00.

A scholar long known for his careful studies of diabolism here presents an amazing wealth of information concerning the various aspects of those personifications in which the fears and imaginations of men have embodied the spirit and principle of revolt against the power of divine supernatural agencies. Dr. Rudwin is convinced that the "Devil has occupied the dreams and fancies of mankind to a greater extent than any other character, historical or mythological" (p. vii). Whether or not this statement is extreme, there can be no doubt as to the fact that legends and creeds relating to devils and to satanism have occupied an outstanding place in the traditions and literature of the various races and religions, and that they have vitally affected not alone art, but, more generally, the attitudes and practices of individuals and of groups. The subject of the present volume, therefore, is of importance not only to literary and religious historians but also to sociologists, as well as to students of art, of social psychology, and of religion. Dr. Rudwin's treatment of his theme is in the main popular and purely descriptive, yet occasionally he injects bits of penetrating interpretation and of theory bearing upon the principle of evil from the ethical and metaphysical points of view. The specific topics with which he deals include legends concerning the angelic revolt; the number, names, forms, activities, and dominions of the devils; the social organization within the diabolical realm; compacts with the devil; powers and excellencies ascribed to the devil; and the treatments within modern poetry of "the salvation of Satan," whether by virtue of the fact that power, even (or especially) when divine, "makes for tyranny" whereas "rebellion is the essence of nobility," or whether by virtue of other considerations.

Endowed with erudition, along with a subtle humor and a gift for

whimsical and pungent exposition, Dr. Rudwin has written a volume that should command a very wide interest, and his publishers have added their bit by bringing it out in a most appropriate and attractive form.

EDWARD L. SCHAUB

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*Educating for Citizenship: The Sovereign State as Ruler and as Teacher.* By GEORGE A. COE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xvi+205. \$2.00.

"The bed-rock problem of the public schools, effective education for citizenship in our kind of state, has not been solved—this is certain. But we are moving towards a solution—this also is certain." This problem centers in the relationships between the state as ruler and the state as teacher. We have not as yet a politically educated citizenry because of our "failure to face the peculiar problem of authority in a government of the people by the people." The solution lies in education conceived "as the experience of children and youth in the gradual assumption of the responsibilities of sovereignty. In our society, obeying and ruling must be consciously fused into one."

The range of the discussion is indicated by the chapter titles: "Have We Any Schools of Citizenship?"; "The Political Significance of the Character-Education Movement"; "Self-Government in Schools as a Function of the Sovereign People"; "Propaganda or Education: Which?"; "Civic Education by the Federal Government"; "Technical and Social Qualifications of the Ruler-Teacher"; "The Schools and the Power behind the Throne"; "The Political Functions of Non-state Schools"; "The New Social Studies: Whither?"; "The School Teacher Quizzes the Sovereign."

For once we may agree with the claims made by a blurb: "Dr. Coe's brilliant and stirring analysis of the rôle of American schools in producing citizens—or in not producing them—has the very greatest importance for every person interested in good government and the good life—as well as for every person who, directly or indirectly, is concerned with the present educational system."

But certain implications (not explicit conclusions) of the analysis are open to criticism. The author writes as though he believes the schools could give an adequate preparation for citizenship, if only the task were properly understood and courageously faced, whereas it may be questioned whether more is possible than a good beginning. Moreover, the

discussion rather implies that teachers can achieve through their own efforts the freedom from outside interference that is essential to the performance of the task, which seems very doubtful. And, finally, we are allowed to believe that adults can practice intelligent, active citizenship through agencies of the sorts already established. This also may be questioned. It may be submitted, in criticism of these views, that thorough organization of adult citizens is essential to the continuation of political education begun by the school, to the competent practice of citizenship itself after school days are over, and to assured public support of the best beginnings in this direction that the school may achieve.

SEBA ELDRIDGE

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

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*Bohemia in the Eighteenth Century.* By ROBERT JOSEPH KERNER.  
New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xii+412. \$4.00.

The present volume gives us much more than the title promises. It is not only a history of Bohemia, and it is not only Bohemia of the eighteenth century. The lands of the Czech crown—Moravia, Bohemia, and Silesia—were a very important part of the Habsburg monarchy, namely, in the second half of the eighteenth century. The author is forced, therefore, to give the history of Bohemia in connection with the historical events of all the territory of the Habsburgs. Kerner's work refers also to the seventeenth century and pays attention to the conditions before and after the Battle of White Mountain in 1620.

For the sociologist this work offers a description and an analysis of a very interesting period, during which Bohemia, an independent feudal state of the sixteenth century, was changed into a province of a modern, highly centralized empire. In the course of this evolution Bohemia not only lost its independence, but also its religion and its national language." This transition is reproduced from all points of view and with a great erudition. Part I contains a detailed analysis of all basic components of the political, economic, and social life; political, constitutional, and judicial questions are treated in Part II; Part III has reference to economic problems such as commerce, industry, finance, taxation, and serfdom; Part IV deals with social aspects such as religion, the school system, Germanization, and the Czech revival; Part V is a very clear summary of the author's conclusions. Very interesting details and keen observations grounded on careful research and on the knowledge of new data from the



archives of Prague and Vienna are to be found on many pages. Part VI contains an abundant Bibliography, which is considered under three headings—bibliographical Guides and Publications"; "Sources in Manuscript and in Print"; "Secondary Authorities"—and an Index.

Students who are interested in the history of Central Europe, and especially those who want to understand the history of the Czech state until the time of its national revival, will find in Kerner's work a reliable guide.

ANT. OBRDLÍK

BRNO, CZECHOSLOVAKIA

*L'esprit international dans l'état et l'église.* By PIERRE BOUSCHARAIN. Paris: Editions "Je Sers," 1932. Pp. xiv+198.

This is a book of essays by a French Protestant, a member of the Secretariat of the League of Nations, on the Christian approach to the constitution of an international society. The chapter on the Stockholm movement of the Anglican, Greek Orthodox, and Protestant churches is one of the best descriptions in point of this phase of the post-war development. The author seems unaware of the fact that another selective principle might have identified Christianity with the most vehement nationalistic tendencies during the same decade.

HARRY D. GIDEONSE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*The New York Money Market.* Vol. II: *Sources and Movements of Funds.* By BENJAMIN H. BECKHART and JAMES G. SMITH. Vol. III: *Uses of Funds.* By BENJAMIN H. BECKHART. Vol. IV: *External and Internal Relations.* By BENJAMIN H. BECKHART, JAMES G. SMITH, and WILLIAM A. BROWN, JR. New York: Columbia University Press, 1932. Pp. xi+395; xiii+475; xiii+606.

The first volume of this series, *The New York Money Market; Origins and Development*, was reviewed in this *Journal* for March, 1933. The three volumes under discussion here constitute the most comprehensive factual study yet made of the structure and operations of the New York Money Market.

We have here in effect an exact and quantitative analysis of the func-

tioning of the various financial institutions whose interrelationships make up the market as a whole. The authors are also concerned with the influence exerted upon these institutions by domestic and foreign commercial and financial conditions. Finally, they consider some of the pecuniary implications of the control exerted by the government through the medium of the Federal Reserve Board.

The financial institutions whose activities are considered in these studies are as follows: (1) the incorporated banks, which form a tremendous credit pool in New York City and dominate to an important degree the policies of the interior banks; (2) the investment banks, which also control large amounts of credit and whose partners make up the directorates of the leading corporations of the country; (3) the branches or representatives of the leading foreign banks; (4) the acceptance corporations, which function in the facilitation of foreign trade; (5) the New York Federal Reserve Bank, "the keystone of the arch"; (6) the New York Clearing House, which establishes uniform rules pertaining to the internal relationships of the money market; (7) the various intermediaries—stock brokers, bondbrokers, billbrokers, notebrokers, and brokers of foreign exchange, insurance, freight, merchandise, and produce; (8) the specialists in corporation law, accounting, statistics, investments, who possess expert and specialized information of domestic and foreign trade, market fluctuations, and industrial and commercial conditions. These specialists make this market the central clearing house for information of all kinds, on the basis of which decisions of world-importance are made. (9) Finally, the organized exchanges should be included in the category of financial institutions making up the money-market complex. They are elaborate mechanisms, comprising both a set of regulations and a physical structure, for the consummation of transactions in both tangibles and intangibles.

This study is an admirable and carefully documented survey of the New York money market from a financial point of view. The authors do not attempt to approach Wall Street from the broadly philosophic and sociological perspective that characterized Bagehot's observations on Lombard Street. Such a work would point out the human relationships involved in the complex institutional connections of the money market. The sociological story of Wall Street has yet to be written.

FRANCIS E. MERRILL

CENTRAL Y.M.C.A. COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES  
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*The Only Way Out.* By EMILE BURNS. New York: International Publishers, 1932. Pp. 84. \$1.00.

*The Way Forward.* By ROBERT S. BROOKINGS. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932 Pp. 96. \$1.00.

*America Made Young: A Plan for a More Perfect Society.* By DUVAL McCUTCHEEN. Philadelphia: Humanities Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 195. \$2.00.

In the wilderness of the contemporary economic anarchy, the children of Israel continue ceaselessly to cry out for salvation with much wailing and lamentation and to call after strange gods for guidance. Innumerable salvation-mongers mount their steeds and ride off in all directions, each shouting that his way is the only possible exit from chaos. These three little books add relatively little that is new to the salvationist literature. *America Made Young* adds nothing. It is a long conversation between "Gaskins," "Garnickel," *et al.* (page Foster and Catchings), in which the author presents a half-baked scheme to energize, cleanse, purify, etc., the disorder known as the United States. The nostrums of salvation through the new education and the "Constitution of Quality" are not even amusing, much less worthy of serious discussion.

*The Way Forward* is scarcely better. It is full of the naïve nonsense and pious platitudes habitually mouthed by business men who have no perspective on the world in which they live. The only justification for its publication is the fact that it was written (shortly before his death) by the founder of the Brookings Institution. The contrast between the inadequacies of the book and the accomplishments of the Institution demonstrate once more that business men can contribute more effectively to the progress of social science with their money than with their brains.

*The Only Way Out* of Emile Burns is the way of revolutionary communism. The author knows his capitalistic economics and his Marxian gospel reasonably well, and he devotes his talents, with considerable success, to an analysis of capitalism in England and of the future of the British working class. His blasts at schemes of price-fixing, "managed credit," "planned capitalism," and high wages *à la* Ford are most effective. Marxians will be easily persuaded by his contentions that the British workers have no alternative to social revolution and that British economy will readily survive such an upheaval. Non-Marxians will be skeptical. But bourgeois panaceas of the type represented by Messrs. Brookings and McCutchen may well cause the intelligent academic observer to retreat to Moscow.

FREDERICK L. SCHUMAN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Enquête sur les conditions de vie de chômeurs assurés.* By GUILLAUME JACQUEMYNS. Liège: Thone, 1932. Pp. 87.

This report is the first part of a larger study of the living conditions of the families of Belgian workers living on unemployment-insurance benefits. The budgets of nineteen families living in Brussels are given in considerable detail. With these budgets as of January-February, 1932, are compared those of the lowest-income groups found in two earlier investigations, 1891 and 1929. The unemployed workers were living on about the same income as the most poorly paid wage-earners included in the 1929 study. Since they continued to live largely in the same quarters as prior to their unemployment, they were spending far more for shelter than the families chosen for comparison from the 1929 study. For clothing, however, they spend markedly less and for food slightly less.

HAZEL KYRK

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*The Federal Trade Commission.* By THOMAS C. BLAISDELL, JR. New York: Columbia University Press, 1932. Pp. viii + 323. \$3.00

This is an excellent piece of work. It accomplishes with economy of language and effectiveness of form its clearly stated task of discussing the Federal Trade Commission as "An Experiment in the Control of Business" (subtitle). After an Introduction on the Faith in competition, giving the social background of the "experiment," the argument is divided into two parts, treating respectively of the Commission's administrative activities in dealing with unfair competition and with its activities in getting and publishing information as a basis for public regulation of business practices. A concluding chapter surveys the results, especially with reference to the question why the Commission has not accomplished more in the line of the purpose back of its founding.

For a doctoral thesis, which it seems to be, it is remarkable for the display of judgment and balance and general intellectual maturity. This does not mean that the book has not definite limitations—which may be defects or merits according to the standards used for judging. Perhaps the same conditions, which prompt so much discussion of "control," work against going very deeply into the problem or facing clearly the final issues. Mr. Blaisdell's sympathy with the Commission against the courts is expressed with restraint but is apparent. It is not clear that he recognizes that for government under law restriction of officials to assigned tasks is just as essential as granting them power for those tasks, and that

in such fields this probably cannot be carried out under any general formula. That is, the problem of control raises the basic principle of American political theory, government by laws versus by men. Again, on the economic-theory side, there is similar failure to grasp fundamentals. The definition of monopoly (p. 298) is letter-correct, and yet the possessor of such a monopoly might have any degree of monopoly power, from zero to infinity, might in fact exemplify at the same time complete monopoly and perfect competition!

FRANK H. KNIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Elementorum jurisprudentiae universalis libri duo.* By SAMUEL PUFENDORF. Translated by WILLIAM ABBOTT OLDFATHER. 2 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1931. Pp. vi+377 and xxxiii+304. \$7.50.

*Quaestionum juris publici libri duo.* By CORNELIUS VAN BYNKERSHOEK, with an Introduction by J. DE LOUTER. Translated by TENNEY FRANK. 2 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1930. Pp. 417 and xlvi+304. \$10.

The readily available literature of international law has been enriched by the republication of these two classics. Pufendorf's work, here reproduced in the text of 1672, was first published in 1660 and preceded his larger and better-known work entitled *De jure naturae et gentium*; Bynkershoek's work reproduces the original edition of 1737. Neither of these works has been before entirely translated into English. In addition to texts and translations, long introductions by two distinguished international jurists point out the significance of the works to international law.

Bynkershoek has long been known for his greater utilization of positive materials such as treaties, national legislation, and cases than other of the classical writers. But, nevertheless, he gives full recognition to reason as a source of international law. Pufendorf and Bynkershoek have often been taken to represent two divergent schools of international law: Pufendorf the philosophical or "natural law" school which deduced concrete rules of international law from a few assumed fundamental principles by a sort of geometric process and Bynkershoek the empirical or "positive law" school which sought to induce rules from the consistent practice of nations. De Louter contends that Bynkershoek "although a great jurist was no philosopher," and perhaps the difference in the two schools can better be explained by psychological differences among the

writers than by basic divergencies in their views of the sources of law. The theoretical expositions of the two writers as to the sources of international law are not as different as sometimes supposed.

If the reader has diligence to master the significance back of the forms of expression used by these classical writers, he will often find that the substance is refreshingly modern. The problems of international law and of international organization of the seventeenth century had startling resemblances to those of today, and keen minds grappled with them in similar manner. At the same time, the modern jurist cannot but congratulate himself upon the larger body of positive materials and the more pervasive international organization which renders his subject less speculative today than it was two centuries ago. Each of the writers is reluctant to attribute positive obligation to rules, whether of peace or war, not resting on specific consent. Judging from the position of these writers, sovereignty was but slightly limited by law in the early seventeenth century. Loose as the family of nations still is, if we may accept the position of present-day writers on international law as correct, it is less atomistic than it was in the days of Pufendorf and Bynkershoek.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

QUINCY WRIGHT

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*The Government in Labor Disputes.* By EDWIN E. WITTE. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932. Pp. xi+352.

If Mr. Witte were not already recognized as one of the outstanding authorities on the problems of labor injunctions, this volume would certainly assure him that place. The thirteen chapters and four appendixes cover the subject in a most thorough and comprehensive fashion. Theory and practice are blended in a way only possible by one who has supplemented a sound theoretical training with practical experience in government.

It is to be expected that the importance of statutes would be stressed in a book written by a director of a legislative-reference service—and Mr. Witte is chief of one of the outstanding services in the United States. The three chapters which are devoted to this aspect of the problem are especially valuable. Two summarize the federal and state acts which have been passed to restrain the abuse of equity powers in labor cases, and the third contains some very interesting suggestions concerning what it is, and what it is not possible to do by legislative fiat.

The chapters on court decisions were not prepared to assist the lawyer who is seeking a legal loophole for the benefit of his client. They were

written to enable an intelligent inquirer to understand an extremely complicated subject, and they have succeeded admirably in their object. In no place does Mr. Witte's dynamic style stand him in better stead than in traversing the boggy swamp of judicial precedent. The remarkable clarity of his thought and the vigor of his presentation serve to open the way, which would be almost impossible under less skilful direction.

A reader can hardly help but be impressed with the impartiality of the author. There are some subjects on which a temperate discussion is an event. Prohibition is one of these; labor injunctions is another. The author who can understand and sympathize with both sides of such questions is more than a scholar—he is a genius. Mr. Witte “would go as far as any labor leader in ‘abolishing’ injunctions,” but he recognizes the tremendous difficulties in the way of such action. “Any sound public policy should take into consideration the rights and interests of employers no less than those of employees.” To balance those rights in a manner which will stand the test of judicial scrutiny is not as simple as many enthusiasts would have us believe.

The core of the problem is, of course, the prevention of violence in labor disputes. If executive authorities were more alive to their responsibilities, much of the need for injunctions would disappear. If we will not prevent industrial conflicts by righting industrial wrongs, we should at least make serious attempts to solve them peaceably through conciliation or arbitration. “Instead of having the courts pass upon the merits of disputes, the author advocates confining the rôle of government to the preservation of law and order, and to efforts at adjustment. Such a policy, he believes, will result in better law enforcement and fewer strikes—certainly in less resentment against the government and distrust of the courts.” This doctrine is, of course, only good sense, but one wonders at times if good sense rules the world.

RODNEY L. MOTT

AMERICAN LEGISLATOR'S ASSOCIATION  
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*Medical Care for the American People. Final Report of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xvi+213.

The famous Committee on the Costs of Medical Care was instituted five years ago and at the time of making its final report last October was composed of forty-eight persons: seventeen representing private practice;

six, public health; ten, institutions and special interests; nine, the public; and six, the social sciences, the latter group being Drs. M. M. Davis, W. T. Foster, W. H. Hamilton, W. C. Mitchell, W. F. Ogburn, and H. C. Taylor.

The Committee finds that over a million of us make our living in the field of medical care, receiving therefor annually three and one-half billion dollars, a sum slightly in excess of the total laid out on recreation, on education, or on tobacco and refreshments.

There were in 1930 nearly 7,000 hospitals in the country with about one million beds, two-thirds of them under governmental control. The contrasts among communities are instructive. Thus Wisconsin has one bed for community use to each 154 persons; South Carolina, one to each 749 persons. While the incidence of illness is found to be about the same for all income groups, the group receiving the lowest amount of service gets only two-fifths as many calls from physicians as the group with the highest amount.

Of the sum spent annually for medical service a thirtieth is spent on osteopaths, chiropractors, and faith healers and a tenth goes for "patent medicines." "Much of the former sum and practically all of the latter are wasted."

The Committee's studies show that the costs of medical care in any one year now fall very unevenly upon different families in the same income group. "The heart of the problem is, therefore, the equalizing of the financial impact of sickness." "Budgeting for medical care on the individual family basis is impracticable. On the present fee-for-service basis it is impossible for 99 per cent of the families to set aside any reasonable sum of money with positive assurance that the sum will purchase all needed medical care."

It appears that for representative groups all needed medical care can be provided, in urban areas at least, at a cost of \$20 to \$40 per capita per annum.

The Committee recommends that medical service should be furnished largely by organized groups of physicians, dentists, nurses, etc., organized preferably around a hospital, which thus becomes the community's medical center. It urges the extension of all basic public health services so that they will be available to the entire population according to its needs. It recommends that the costs of medical care be placed on a group payment basis through the use of insurance, or of taxation, or of both, although it is not meant to preclude the continuation of medical service on a fee basis.



Eight physicians and one layman submit a minority report opposing the majority recommendations of community medical centers and "group payment for medical service." It is not difficult to perceive that this group is less concerned with the terms on which medical care can be made available to all than with the incomes of medical men. In Wisconsin the average professional income of the surgeon is twice that of the physician and that of the specialist is nearly twice that of the general practitioner. Naturally the brunt of the battle for the fee basis of recompense is borne by those who come off best under the fee basis.

Professor Walton H. Hamilton in a report of his own complains that the report of the majority "falls far short of an adequate attack upon the problem" and insists that "the maintenance of the physical welfare of the people must be a public function."

It is safe to predict that this volume will stand out a giant landmark through the next thirty or forty years of the practice of medicine in this country.

EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

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*The Culture of the Teutons.* By VILHELM GRØNBECH. London: Humphrey Milford, 1931. 3 vols. Pp. 382, 340, and 141. \$10.

This is a translation made from Danish in 1931 from *Vor folkeæt i oldtiden* (4 vols., 1909-12), which is a standard work. The English garb fits so well that it can hardly be recognized as a translation. It is also a revision; chapter xiv, "The Creative Festival," is entirely re-written, and the following chapter, "The Gods," is new. Volume III, Bibliography and notes, also has much new matter.

Grønbech seeks here to determine the Old Germanic and particularly the Old Scandinavian attitudes toward the fundamental things of life, to find out in what happiness consisted at that day, honor, family, clan; what life meant, birth, death, sanctity, the temple, worship, sacrifice; what was man's relation to nature, to the gods. The author had to discard our concepts and discover the ancient ones. Each step is documented from primary sources. This work provides its classified data with an aesthetic and philosophical interpretation.

The Danish Rask-Ørsted fund made its appearance in English possible.

C. N. GOULD

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Le mythe du héros et la mentalité primitive.* By HENRI BROCHER.  
Paris: Librairie Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. 126.

The author recognizes two classes of heroes: the beneficent and the maleficent. His interpretation of primitive mentality embodies the views of Lévy-Bruhl and of the Freudians. Compensation, substitution, and retribution are the motives contributed by the latter. The exposition flows nicely, once the premises are admitted. The reviewer, however, is left with the feeling that none of the depths has been plumbed, and that no ideas or interpretations have been offered.

WILSON D. WALLIS

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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*The Adventure of Mankind.* By EUGEN GEORG. Translated from the German by ROBERT BEK-GRAN. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1931. Pp. xx+325.

This is a turgid volume, full of the psychic, the theosophic, and the sexual—or, rather, perversions thereof. All sorts of wild theories concerning early man and his subsequent evolution and history are thrown together into a yet more seething *potpourri* and repeated in a still more exaggerated manner. The Dyas and Tai Gi, the phoenix, and Atlantis vie with "Adam, 'the Twin,'" and with the "Temple Beast and the Sodomitic Orgy." It might be charitable to think of the author as affected by modern works on archaeology and anthropology, ethnology and mythology, as Cervantes' mad knight of La Mancha was by too much reading of medieval romances of chivalry. But we fear that the volume is intended for itching and prurient ears.

LYNN THORNDIKE

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*In Defense of Modern Youth.* By ELLIS CHADBOURNE. New York: Tenny Press, 1931. Pp. 320. \$3.00.

This book presents more than sixty short essays dealing with the youth movement in Germany, the United States, and elsewhere. These essays are grouped under such general and formal titles as the "Spiritual," "Physical," "Social," "Political," "Economic," "Cultural," and "Moral Renaissance." Few of them could be classed as a sociological interpretation of the youth movement. Nor are they a scientific treatment of the

psychological nature of youth activities. They might be classed as educational articles for the most part, with a tendency to be formal in character. Unfortunately, a bibliography of the literature and an index have been omitted.

The author does not reveal as clear cut a view of the distinctive character of any youth movements in this country as he does in Germany. Certain young people driving across the country in their collegiate Fords cannot be compared to the *Wandervögel* of Germany. Likewise, it is a mistake to class the palatial international houses in Chicago, New York, or San Francisco with the German youth homes. They are widely different social movements, both in their psychological nature and in their sociological meaning.

While this book has assembled a large number of interesting articles on the youth movement, still the method of treatment is not as scientific, and the interpretations are not as diagnostic, as the sociological reader would desire.

W. RYLAND BOORMAN

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*The Organization and Activities of the National Educational Association: A Case Study in Educational Sociology.* By ERWIN S. SELLE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College of Columbia University, 1932. Pp. 180. \$1.75.

The comparatively new subject of educational sociology is gradually emerging from one in which the literature consists of general philosophical speculation and essays based upon common observation to one in which exact scientific techniques are worked out from carefully selected and controlled data with accurate analysis in the classification and interpretation of the facts collected. Perhaps the workers in no aspect of sociology in recent years have been more active in the use of scientific method than in the field of educational sociology.

The recent monograph, under review, is a part of this literature and presents a sociological analysis and interpretation of the National Education Association—its organization, its activities and objectives, its relationships to other groups, and its methods of control during the decade from 1918 to 1928.

Obviously such a study does not permit experimental procedure and therefore the author has adopted the technique most appropriate to such a

research, namely, an intensive sociological analysis or organic study of a complex group—a case study. The research has value as a technique for the study of other social groups and also for its interpretation of this significant organization during the period of its most intense activity and widespread influence.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

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*Coup d'état: The Technique of Revolution.* By CURZIO MALAPARTE.  
New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. 251. \$2.50.

The author of *Coup d'état* has a notable record as a practitioner of what he preaches. He is one of the close friends and associates of Mussolini. His thesis is that modern revolution is a matter not of gaining control of the offices of government but of the public utilities. A group that can get possession of the railroads, waterworks, telegraph and telephone systems, electric-light and power plants, and other such essentials of civilization can overthrow any government. A modern revolution succeeds if it gains control of them. Accordingly, modern revolutionists need to have in their service a large number of skilful technicians and workmen. Of course, a revolution can succeed if the existing body of technicians and skilled laborers can be won over to the side of revolutionists. If the revolutionists cannot win over the engineers and workmen now in charge, and have no qualified persons to take their places, the revolution fails.

This thesis is illustrated by examples of the techniques employed by Trotsky, Stalin, Mussolini, De Rivera, and Hitler.

The style of the book is very choppy and uneven. As the author has a high reputation as a literary man, the faults of the present edition may perhaps be set down to the translator.

L. P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*Housing Objectives and Programs.* Edited by JOHN M. GRIES and JAMES FORD. Washington, D.C.: The President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership, 1932. Pp. xxv+345. \$1.15.

This volume, the eleventh and final publication of the series, contains the reports of six committees correlating the work of the twenty-five fact-finding committees of the Conference. It covers technological developments, education and service, local and national organization programs,

and research. It aims to define what housing ought to be and to outline broadly the programs necessary to make it so. It is a valuable pooling of data and experience on housing. The section on research is particularly good.

MAURICE R. DAVIE

YALE UNIVERSITY

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*Children and Their Parents.* By MAUD E. WATSON. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1932. Pp. x+362. \$3.50.

Nineteen children were chosen from cases handled by the Neuro-psychiatric Clinic at Harper Hospital, Detroit, because the physical findings were negative and the explanation of the child's behavior therefore lay in his experiences and reactions. Each case is given with a wealth of detail, not only about the child but about his parents and grandparents. An analysis of the personality development of each parent and of the marital situation forms a background to the study of the child's own difficulties.

The point of view is that of Dr. Marion E. Kenworthy, who analyzes behavior in terms of two major drives, the ego and the libido. The ego is defined as "an instinct of protection, domination, and that which leads every individual to be self-maximizing or realizing." The libido is a "love value" and includes love of parents, siblings, and relatives as well as love of a mate. Experiences are further classified as destructive (regressive) or constructive (maturing). Each experience may also be satisfying or unsatisfying. Such disturbing behavior in children as enuresis, stealing, lying, and the like is regarded as symptomatic of underlying conflicts and dissatisfactions.

In the first case given each item of behavior of the parents, of the problem child, and of an older brother is classified according to the foregoing outline. In subsequent cases a rather free interpretation is given with only occasional reference to the underlying basis of analysis.

The book may be criticized on three points: (1) It is doubtful whether Dr. Kenworthy's hypothesis of the underlying drives and motives of human conduct deserves the complete acceptance accorded it by the author. Interesting and workable as the hypothesis is, it is limited in scope and calls for a subjective interpretation of behavior. An adherent of some other viewpoint could analyze the cases in terms of some other hypothesis, say in terms of Thomas' four wishes, with very satisfactory results. It would seem that Dr. Kenworthy's hypothesis should be regarded as one of several usable hypotheses rather than as the one hypothesis. (2) Al-

though these cases were handled in a clinic and presumably were subjected to remedial work, little reference is made to this angle of the problem. A discussion of the treatment and the degree of success attained would have added to the value of the book and at the same time have served as a check upon the analysis. In other words, the reader would feel that the ego-libido analysis was more sound if it were demonstrated that a program for the child and his parents based upon this analysis was successful. (3) The book should have been edited more carefully than it was. There are a few typographical errors and many roughly constructed, even ungrammatical, sentences. In one instance at least there is a sad error in chronology. A child born November 2, 1916, is described as being eight years and ten months old on November 24, 1928.

The book should be commended for the thoroughness of detail, the inclusion of material upon the parents, and the attempt to use a consistent basis of analysis. It may be hoped that at some future time the author will publish another series of cases, giving in similar detail the methods of treatment and the results secured.

RUTH SHONLE CAVAN

ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS

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*The House That Freud Build.* By JOSEPH JASTROW. New York: Greenberg, 1932. Pp. ix+297. \$2.50.

As the adroit title indicates, this partial indorsement and partial rejection of what the author takes to be psychoanalysis is intended for the popular audiences, with which Dr. Jastrow carries much weight. The technical reader who wants to see what can be said to deflate psychoanalysis can spend his time to better advantage reading H. H. Hollingworth, *Abnormal Psychology: Its Concepts and Theories* (1930), which is described in a footnote on page 281 as "by far the most critical survey of all the concepts underlying the entire range of problems in the field where Psychology and Psychiatry have mutual interests." Jastrow's outlook is parallel with that of Daniel Bell Leary, *Modern Psychology: Normal and Abnormal* (1928), whose treatment of psychoanalysis he indorses.

One of the few places where the author makes his points technically occurs where he says of the Freudian "unconscious" that it plays a minor but real part within the orbit of normal human behavior, and . . . the part it plays is far more correctly interpreted as a factor in the total subconscious phases of psychic organization. In that process and product the major rôle is fusion, a fusion of primary and secondary function, and of successive

integrations within the vast primary range. Fusional psychology dominates; when it recedes or the integration fails, some form or measure of recessive dissociation may be involved along with the dominant association. . . . In this comprehensive scheme of *dissociational states* (or processes) the Freudian "unconscious" can and should be fit [p. 167].

In view of the terms used in psychoanalysis to distinguish the processes between the fully conscious and the totally unconscious aspects of activity, this is not a criticism but a reverbaling of Freud, which is Jastrow at his best. His book has the ills that rise from the methodological failure to construe Freud's language with reference to what Freud is talking about, namely, the phenomena of the prolonged interview.

HAROLD D. LASSWELL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Mexican Labor in the United States.* By PAUL S. TAYLOR. Vol. I: *Chicago and the Calumet Region*; Vol. II: *Migration Statistics*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1932, 1933. Pp. 284, 10.

Mr. Taylor's study of Mexican labor contains much of interest to sociologists. In the first publication a concise history of the movement of Mexican labor into the United States is included, together with census data and maps of the location of their settlements in Chicago. Special tabulations are made of several thousand cases of recent immigrants by state of origin in Mexico. Many aspects of the Mexican laborer's life are revealed to us in the process of adjustment to various fields of work—on the railroad, in the steel mills, and in the packing-houses. The problem of making a living is only part of the picture, since he must find a place to live, a place for his family to live, and a place to express his religious and cultural interests. In all of these fields of interest he comes into contact, and often into conflict, with racial groups which have preceded him only a few years. His predecessors proceed, with no gentle hand, to initiate him, fresh from the rural culture of Central Mexico, into the urban life of the American city. The many case documents give full insight into the attitudes and feelings of these most recent of our industrial-labor recruits.

Data in Volume II, *Migration Statistics*, were gathered through the co-operation of the California State Department of Agriculture, which maintains quarantine checking stations at the main motor-vehicle routes crossing California's southeastern boundary. Quoting from the conclusion: "The statistics gathered for this study show the volume and fluctuations

in the movement of Mexican and Negro laborers into California. The great majority of the former and a large proportion of the latter engaged in agricultural labor; statistics of the former, especially, reveal the ebb and flow of workers in response to crop labor demands in California and Arizona." Mr. Taylor indicates that the method of gathering these much-needed data could be adapted generally to the flow of labor by automobile routes.

CHARLES NEWCOMB

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*Agricultural Credit in the United States.* By E. S. SPARKS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1932. Pp. xiii+476. \$3.75.

Most of the literature dealing with agricultural credit in the United States is fragmentary, of recent origin, and covers only the last twenty years of history. This treatise is different in that it covers the whole span of American history and undertakes a complete consideration of the history and theory of agricultural credit in the United States, beginning with the colonial settlers' demands for "crop currencies" and concluding with the various farmer demands of the last few years. It is written to be used as a college textbook, each chapter being supplied with "Questions," "Topics for Investigation," and a "Select Bibliography."

According to the author, "The history of agriculture credit in the United States is largely a study of the flow of capital, in all of its various productive forms, from the centers of industry and accumulated supplies to the frontier agricultural districts." In the final paragraph of the book he says, "Cheap credits cannot solve the farm problem. In fact, many forms of cheap and unwise credits have complicated the agricultural problem of this country." These are two significant statements just at the time when farmers are demanding great amounts of cheap, and some believe unwise, credits and when farm-mortgage indebtedness has accumulated to almost ten billion dollars, most of which is owed to the industrial centers of the nation. Between the two statements quoted the author presents a critical analysis of the various credit experiments which have been made in the three hundred years of our national life.

The credit needs of the American farmer did not arise, but have increased, with dominant commercial agriculture. They arose with his desire to buy land. They have been supplied by foreign capitalists and merchants, colonial land banks, "property banks," a whole gamut of federal agricultural banks, life insurance companies, trust funds, estates of in-



dividuals, corporations, the Federal Farm Board, commercial banks, merchants, and direct loans from the federal treasury. The money borrowed has been used for land purchase, production and marketing operation, purchasing food and clothing, and even for financing marketing holding schemes. Out of this elaborate experience and a knowledge of other banking and credit operations should have come some guiding principles and practices for the "present emergency." While not driving the point, the author implies that this is true.

He recites the early farm-relief schemes and demands for cheap money, describes the experiences of "Private Land Bank Schemes," "The Public Loan Office or Public Land Bank," and "Real Estate Banking in the South (1800-1860)," and thoroughly describes and analyzes the organization and operation of "The Federal Land Banks," "The Joint Stock Land Banks," "The Federal Intermediate Credit Banks," and gives the record of the "Federal Farm Board" for the first year of its operation. He explains the "National Banking System" and the "Federal Reserve System" in their relation to agriculture, describes "Credit Unions" and presents theories of money and banking in relation to agriculture. In conclusion he raises the question of whether the farmers of the United States are amply supplied with rural credit facilities, presents the farm-debt status in the United States (1910, 1920, and 1925), and discusses the present and future credit needs of American agriculture. The only points at which the description and analysis can be said to be inadequate are in a consideration of merchant, or crop-lien credits, for a long while prevalent in the cotton, tobacco, and wheat belts and now quite common in other farming areas, and in his discussion of deferred payments.

The most outstanding conclusions are that there is need for "more scientific appraisals of farm income and the proper capitalization of farm values over long time periods; the elimination of the unsound parts of the present rural credit machinery and proper use of essential parts; and a greater emphasis on the scientific use of credit, on controlled agricultural production, and on scientific farm management." By more scientific appraisals of farm income and values he means a lessening of belief in the theory that land always does and always will increase in value and a recognition that the farmer must expect to receive his reward out of working on the farm. He suggests as improvements in agricultural credit machinery the elimination of the stabilization activities of the Federal Farm Board, the possible elimination of the joint stock land banks, possibly the shortening of the amortization period for farm-mortgage debts, the control of the federal farm-loan banks by borrowing farmers, reduced credit costs

to farmers, "provided such reduction is not made at the expense of other industries and do not result in decreasing the total net income of all industry," and, above all, more careful and scientific studies in the field of agricultural credit.

The contents and implied conclusions of this book may not, and probably will not, please the most ardent advocates of cheaper rural credits. The fact is that the rural-credit and farm-mortgage situation has become worse since the manuscript for the book was completed, and the issue of justice between debtors and creditors during a period of long price decline is not at any point adequately discussed. Nevertheless, as Dr. T. N. Carver says in a Foreword, "Dr. Sparks has performed a notable service in presenting in outline the whole story of the ways by which capital has been induced to flow to the farms of the United States," and that his "work is timely as well as thorough and comprehensive."

CARL C. TAYLOR

RALEIGH, NORTH CAROLINA

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*The Influence of Environment on the Settlement of Missouri.* By JAMES FERNANDO ELLIS. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. 181.

This is a well-organized, detailed study from the historical approach. There is a good bibliography. The author's selection of the counties located in the Ozarks differs from that of Dodge and Sauer. Being a native Missourian especially aids the author in his intimate descriptions in this none too materialistic book.

ROY E. BUREN

WEST PLAINS, MISSOURI

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*The Background of Swedish Immigration, 1840-1930.* By FLORENCE E. JANSON. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. x+517. \$5.00.

This book presents a detailed, historical study of economic, social, and political factors underlying Swedish immigration from 1840 to 1930. In the forties Sweden was an isolated, self-sufficient, agricultural country which had become an industrialized nation in 1930, in which the older rural culture and isolation were rapidly disappearing. This investigation clearly indicates many other causes of immigration in addition to the desire for better economic opportunities in a new country, such as the influ-

ence of advertising in the Swedish press, the numerous letters from settlers in the United States, compulsory military training in Sweden, political and social discrimination with reference to the less favored classes in Sweden, and many other factors. The publication reveals a wide acquaintance with first-hand source material, as, for example, the *Report on Emigration* published by the Swedish government, consular and diplomatic reports, and a knowledge of Swedish history, the Swedish language, and the author's travels in Sweden.

ELMER L. SETTERLUND

HASTINGS COLLEGE

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*Revelation in Mormonism.* By GEORGE B. ARBAUGH. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. x+252. \$3.00.

The *Book of Mormon* has been examined from many points of view but never in terms of its internal consistency with such care as in Arbaugh's study. Its origin as well as the beginnings of other books of revelation claimed by the saints of the Rocky Mountains are set forth in great detail. Since Arbaugh cannot accept divine origin, he must look for a plausible human source, or sources. He is of the opinion that Joseph Smith was mainly ballyhoo man for Sidney Rigdon. In the *Book of Mormon* and some of the early revelations the author claims that the hand and mind of Rigdon are more in evidence than those of Smith. Arbaugh points to numerous items, especially in the *Book of Mormon*, that relate not to Nephite times as much as to issues raging in this country at the time of writing the book. Among these issues are Masonry, Catholicism, child baptism, the sacrament, etc. Many of the revelations, according to this critic, were merely expedient devices for meeting then current problems.

As long as Arbaugh stays on the logic of the revelations he gives a good account of himself. He seems to go afield and betray bias when he handles the history of church founders. He seems too willing to accept the testimony of early enemies of Mormonism.

NELS ANDERSON

SETH LOW JUNIOR COLLEGE

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*Laissez Faire and After.* By O. FRED BOUCKE. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1932. Pp. ix+342. \$3.00.

The task which Professor Boucke has set himself is admittedly one as imperative as any in connection with building and operating democratic civilization. It is that of bringing the reflections of the serious scholar in

economics upon current problems more generally and rapidly into the purview of the public mind than happens by the indirect procedure of technical writing for the profession or the college student. Perhaps I am not a good judge of the result; I hope I am not, for, with the best will in the world, I cannot think the book will be much of a "success" in the intended sense. It is written in a sort of staccato style, and is often obscure to a reader such as myself just where clearness seems particularly necessary. The message is one which needs to get across into the half-conscious economic thinking of the public, still molded by nineteenth-century slogans a couple of generations out of date, and even on the profession itself the sane, balanced judgments will not at all be wasted. There are three parts, dealing respectively with conditions or changes in conditions which have made *laissez faire* obsolete as a fact and as a goal, with new objectives and movements, notably "planning," and with actual or necessary changes in the science of economics. An excellent device is the summary statement of "fundamental propositions" by chapters, following the Preface.

FRANK H. KNIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Herbert Hoover and American Individualism.* By WALTER F. DEXTER. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. viii + 256. \$2.00.

This "modern interpretation of a national ideal" is a campaign document written by a college president. To the author Herbert Hoover is "the leading modern American exponent of the philosophy of individualism" whose views "have won for him the intellectual appreciation of many of the best thinkers of the civilized world." The hero of the eulogy is described as surrounded by a "spirit of personal and national loyalty enjoyed only by men whose high and noble purposes are determined by the needs and aspirations of the people whom they serve." If any further sample of the quality of the volume is desired, the reader is referred to pages 218-19 where the "cordial exchange of greetings" between President Hoover and the French aviators Costs and Bellonte is described as "indicative of the trend of future international contacts." There are similar gems in each chapter.

HARRY D. GIDEONSE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*The Tempo of Modern Life.* By JAMES TRUSLOW ADAMS. New York: Albert & Charles Boni, Inc., 1931. Pp. viii+344.

A collection of essays first published in various magazines and dealing with one and another aspect of contemporary American life. Stress is put upon the diminishing returns in living resulting from the substitution of a scale of relative values for absolute standards, from the great acceleration of the tempo of experience, the preference for showy material achievement, the weakness for Pollyanna sentimentalism, the tendency to see important problems as a series of isolated close-ups, etc.

Admitting the long list of faults enumerated, a critical reader may feel that the book nevertheless conveys a decidedly erroneous impression. And he may be convinced that hope, if there is any, lies in the social and educational agencies ignored by the author, rather than, as he believes, in the idealism and intelligence of the youth of the privileged classes.

M. C. OTTO

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

*World Social Economic Planning. The Necessity for Planned Adjustment of Productive Capacity and Standards of Living.* By M. L. FLEDDERUS (ed.). 2 vols. The Hague: International Industrial Relations Institute, 1932. Pp. lxiii+585 and 587-935.

The papers and discussions contributed to the World Social Economic Congress in 1931 have finally been issued by the International Industrial Relations Institute of The Hague. The central theme of the Congress—"Social Economic Planning"—is attacked from many sides by such experts as Lorwin, Palyi, Lazard, E. A. Filene, H. S. Person, J. P. Chamberlain, and Mary Van Kleeck. With what success? Miss Van Kleeck, who analyzed and summarized the discussions, recommended a world social-economic center with functions of research and planning for improving the standards of living of all people, largely, apparently, because of these significant conclusions:

National planning was more clearly envisaged than world planning, which hovered like a will-o'-the-wisp before the Congress, eluding concrete expression. That the economic life of every nation is affected by influences beyond its borders was frequently affirmed. That international economic co-operation is urgently needed was, also, not denied. But that a world plan for production and consumption could be established now was not demonstrated.

ARTHUR J. TODD

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

*Employment and Unemployment in Pre-war and Soviet Russia.* By SUSAN M. KINGSBURY and MILDRED FAIRCHILD. The Hague: International Industrial Relations Association, 1932. Pp. 132.

The form of this report (originally presented to the World Social Economic Congress at Amsterdam in 1931) is severe, almost crabbed. It contains mostly statistical data, nowhere else available in English, with the minimum of textual interpretation. One of the few generalizations the authors permit themselves is their conclusion that, in the years of reconstruction and at present, considerable evidence can be gathered that standards of living in Soviet Russia are steadily improving, partly apparently because they conclude that the new planned economy has really "liquidated" unemployment.

ARTHUR J. TODD

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*Economics in Primitive Communities.* By RICHARD THURNWALD.

Published for the International Institute of African Languages and Cultures. New York: Oxford University Press, 1932. Pp. xiv+314. \$7.50. (25/-)

In this work, Professor Thurnwald gives a pioneer description and analysis of the economic phenomena manifest in primitive communities. It is not to be considered a translation of a portion of the same author's work on the same subject recently published in German, but is a different treatment, one which, incidentally, was written in English.

Little more can be attempted in the space of this review than to outline the approach of the author toward his subject. After general considerations, in which the relation of food to population and technical skill are analyzed, there is a discussion of the forms which economic life may take. This section consists of short descriptions of the material culture of hunters and trappers, agriculturalists and herdsmen, where social stratification (specialization) is and is not present. Then comes the major portion of the book which analyzes the various forms of economic activity, such as trade, money and exchange, wealth and property, and the like.

Like most anthropologists, Professor Thurnwald fails to distinguish clearly between "material culture" and "economics." Though it is true that, especially in primitive society, the two are intimately related, they are not identical, and one wishes that the distinction had been made the more clearly between technical production and economic processes. The book is, however, a distinct contribution, and should focus attention on a field that has been too little exploited.

MELVILLE J. HERSKOVITS

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

*Growing Up with Our Children: For the Parents of Teen Age Young People.*

By W. H. BURGER. New York: Association Press, 1932. Pp. xii+73.

Seven problems are discussed—breaking home ties, sex, recognition, membership in groups, religion, school, and jobs. The point of view conforms to that generally accepted by psychiatrists and educators dealing with adolescents, with emphasis upon the need for independence and avoidance of emotional conflicts. The book is adaptable for use with a discussion group.

ROCKFORD, ILLINOIS

RUTH SHONLE CAVAN

*The 1931 Flood in China: An Economic Survey by the Department of Agricultural Economics, College of Agriculture and Forestry, the University of Nanking, in Co-operation with the National Flood Relief Commission.*  
Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. 74. \$1.00.

This survey was directed by J. Lossing Buck, author of *Chinese Farm Economy*. The sampling method was used with three types of schedules: the farm schedule, the village schedule, and the *hsien* (county) schedule. The study covered ninety different *hsien* (counties) scattered in the provinces of Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu. It is pointed out that the farm population affected by the 1931 flood is equivalent approximately to the entire farm population of the United States. The average total loss per family is more than the amount of earnings over the period of one year and two months. The values of the immediate minimum needs in Chinese currency are estimated to be approximately one and a half billion dollars.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

C. Y. YEN

*Student Self-Support at the University of Minnesota.* By JAMES G. UMSTATTD. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1932. Pp. xii+205. \$2.50.

At a time when most college administrators find the problem of student self-support particularly serious, this investigation by James G. Umstattd is most welcome. Although the data deal with financially dependent students at one university, the University of Minnesota, they apply as well to other institutions of higher education.

After a comprehensive presentation of the problem, and an explanation of the method of collecting and treating the data, the author deals with the relationship between earnings and economic needs, the extent and nature of self-support, the effects of student self-support, and the attitude of students toward self-support. One of the many significant observations made by the author concerns the relation of employment to scholarship. It appears that moderate employment does not lower the median scholarship of the earners below that of non-earners, but excessive employment does appear to be slightly associated with lower scholarship.

So significant is the material that it should be read by all administrative officers dealing with personnel problems.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

# RECENT LITERATURE

## ABSTRACTS

The abstracts in this issue were prepared, under the direction of Clarence E. Glick and a member of the editorial staff, by Harmon Hayes, Joseph D. Lohman, Margaret L. Plumley, J. S. Roucek, Mary C. Schauffler, E. A. Shils, and F. L. Weller.

Each abstract is numbered at the end according to the following classification:

- I. HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY
  - 1. Original Nature and Individual Differences
  - 2. Attitudes, Sentiments, and Motives
  - 3. Child Study and Adolescence
  - 4. Personality and Life Organization
- II. THE FAMILY
  - 1. Natural History of the Family and the Psychology of Sex
  - 2. The Historic Family and the Family as an Institution
  - 3. The Modern Family and Its Problems
- III. PEOPLES AND CULTURAL GROUPS
  - 1. Emigration and Immigration
  - 2. Colonial Problems and Missions
  - 3. Comparative Studies of Cultural Groups
- IV. CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS
  - 1. Classes and Class Struggle
  - 2. Nationalities and Races
  - 3. Political Parties and Political Doctrines
  - 4. Religious Denominations and Sects
- V. POPULATION AND TERRITORIAL GROUPS
  - 1. Demography and Population
  - 2. Heredity and Selection
  - 3. Eugenics
  - 4. Human Ecology and Human Geography
  - 5. The Urban Community and the Region
  - 6. The Rural Community
- VI. COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR
  - 1. The Primary Group
  - 2. Social Movements: Reforms, Crazes, Revolutions
  - 3. Leadership
  - 4. Recreations, Celebrations, Festivals
- VII. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS
  - 1. Social Origins
  - 2. Culture Traits, Patterns, Complexes, and Area
  - 3. Sociology of Religion
  - 4. Sociology of Government: The Courts and Legislation



5. Sociology of Art
  6. Sociology of Education
  7. Social Change and Social Evolution
  8. Group Ideals and Aims
- VIII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS, SOCIAL PATHOLOGY, AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS
1. Poverty and Dependency
  2. Crime and Delinquency
  3. Disease and Sanitary Problems: Public Health
  4. Mental Disease, Mental Problems, and Mental Hygiene
  5. Social Hygiene
- IX. THEORY AND METHODS
1. Life History, Personal Documents, and Case Study Method
  2. Statistical Method
  3. Mapping and Graphic Representation
  4. Teaching
  5. Theoretical and Philosophical Methods
  6. Sociological Theory
  7. History of Sociology

#### I. HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY

69. FROMM, ERICH. Über Methode und Aufgabe einer analytischen Sozialpsychologie [The Method and Tasks of an Analytical Social Psychology]. *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung*, I, Nos. 1-2 (1932), 28-54.—The only psychology which meets the demands of sociology is psychoanalysis. Psychoanalysis begins with two basic impulses in human beings—the impulse to self-preservation and the impulse for libidinal expression. The former demands direct and immediate satisfaction. The latter is repressible and sublimatable. The forms which the latter assumes through these two processes in various social contexts are the domain of social psychology. When complemented by the historical-materialistic approach, analytical social psychology becomes the understanding of the conscious and unconscious forms of libidinal expression of the members of social groups through their socio-economic position in the social structure. This type of social psychology is also valuable for the light which it throws on the formation and intentions of certain ideologies. (I, 1; IX, 5).—E. A. S.

70. MENNINGER, KARL A. The Origins and Masques of Fear. *Survey*, XXII, No. 4 (April, 1933), 217-22.—All fear is patterned upon early childhood experiences when the child, in a helpless condition, is overwhelmed by environmental factors. Threat of extinction and threat of pain are the two original childish fears. The most poignant pain to the child is the pain of losing love. For the adult, there are real fears from the outside world and neurotic fears from conscience within. Fear is often subtly disguised in forms of inhibition of activity, show of overcourageousness, expressions of hate, conspicuous activity in business or athletics, or withdrawal from social contacts. Fear spreads rapidly, probably through a process of identification. Means of combating real fear are recognition of its nature and counter-suggestion. There is only one weapon against neurotic fear and that is insight. (I, 2; VIII, 4).—M. C. S.

71. THURNWALD, R. The Social Function of Personality. *Sociology and Social Research*, XVII, No. 3 (January-February, 1933), 203-18.—Society and the various social aggregations must be viewed dynamically, for their social structures change, primarily due to personalities as active forces. The selection of a leader in a crowd or mass is automatic, resulting from a ready submission of the individuals to someone who has an apparent solution for the particular situation. The functions of leaders in the more formal organizations tend to get specialized and institutionalized in the form of "offices." The differential between the traditionally expected activity of an individual in a

given office and the actual personality of an individual invested with the office is a potent factor in bringing about change in the structure of the organization. (I, 4; VI, 3).—C. E. G.

## II. THE FAMILY

72. WHITE, WILLIAM A. *The Philosophy of Sex. Family*, XIII, No. 10 (February, 1933), 328-36.—The perpetuation of the race lies at the foundation of all things and to the extent that this is a sexual process, sex becomes significant. In some simpler organic forms reproduction takes place according to asexual methods, so that sex and reproduction cannot be said necessarily to be bound together. In human beings, it is a fundamental fact not adequately appreciated that precisely one-half of the characteristics of new individuals is derived from each parent. The differences manifested by the sexes in adulthood are merely quantitative. Even physical differences are only quantitative. On the psychological level, the differences are ones of emphasis only. Each individual is in a sense bisexual. Although not generally accepted, this bisexuality makes possible mutual understanding. The different characteristics for the sexes come as a result of sexual selection as well as in response to the ordinary conditions of the physical environment. (II, 1; I, 1).—M. C. S.

## III. PEOPLES AND CULTURAL GROUPS

73. KOCOUREK, RST. *Kolonisace, její romantika a skutečnost* [Colonization, Its Romanticism and Reality]. *Krajan*, II, No. 2 (March 1, 1933), 9-10.—In Czechoslovakia colonization is understood in its romantic-exotic sense. The word "farmer" has a more romantic meaning than the word "peasant." The present interest lies in South American states, where there exists a strong colony in Argentinian Chaco, near Presidencia Roque Saenz Peña, with some 3,000 Czechs and Slovaks. The colonizing projects in Czechoslovakia advertised during the last three years are defective because they: (1) ask the candidate to invest what savings he has in Czechoslovakia; (2) force the colonist into independent undertakings; (3) impose too many obligations on the settler; (4) exaggerate the possibilities of a colony. (III, 2).—J. S. R.

## IV. CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS

74. RICHARD, GASTON. *La culture roumaine et l'état roumain* [Rumanian Culture and the Rumanian State]. *Revue Internationale de Sociologie*, XL, Nos. 9-10 (September-October, 1932), 465-85.—The descendants of the Roman colonists of Dacia, although mixed with Slavs, have maintained the national identity upon which the present Rumanian state is based. The Rumanian unity, which persisted through all political vicissitudes, was one of language—distinguishing Rumanians from Slavs, Germans, and Magyars—and of literature—expressing a culture which preserved the language from disintegration into dialects—both preserved by the system of public instruction. The unification of the Rumanian alphabet made possible Rumanian literature. It was achieved by the agency of Roman Catholic and other propaganda, in the Latin alphabet, against Greek Catholicism. Greek influence had earlier preserved Rumania from Slavic assimilation. Rumanian literary movements in the nineteenth century received much of their inspiration in West-European universities, but literary circles maintained the traditions of the Rumanian folk within these movements. (IV, 2; III, 3).—H. H.

75. AYERHAN, JAN. *Dnešní stav československých jazykových menšin zahraničních*. [Present Status of Czechoslovak Language Minorities Abroad]. *Národnostní Obzor*, III, No. 2 (December, 1932), 81-95.—The Czechoslovak minorities are located in Austria, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Germany, and Russia. In the first six states they are protected by the Minorities Treaties, and by special treaties, in addition, in Austria and Poland. In Yugoslavia in some cases, and in Hungary, in general, no protection is granted in practice. Little religious liberty is granted in Austria, and practically none to Catholic Czechoslovaks in Yugoslavia. Protestant Slovaks in Hungary are nearly Magyarized. Private Czechoslovak schools

are permitted in Austria, Bulgaria, and Poland. Rumania does not favor them, and Yugoslavia prohibits them. The worst treatment comes from Hungary. The best treatment is given by Austria, especially in Vienna. There are no Czechoslovak schools in Germany. In Russia the policy of collectivism is endangering the Czech villages. (IV, 2).—*J. S. R.*

76. CHALUPNÝ, EM. Politické soustavy v Československu 1918-1932 [Political Systems of Czechoslovakia 1918-1932]. *Sociologická Revue*, III, Nos. 3-4 (1932), 219-25.—In Czechoslovakia the formal system of democracy is dominated by the system of oligarchy of persons and parties, which corresponds to the poorly developed political sense of a majority of citizens. A possibility of dictatorship has neither objective nor subjective conditions favorable for it. If Czechoslovak parliamentary democracy is to materialize, the concentration coalition must be changed for coalitions of principles, whose composition and tendencies would be determined by the actual needs of the state. (IV, 2; IV, 3).—*J. S. R.*

#### V. COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR

77. CLARK, CARROLL D. The Concept of the Public. *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, XIII, No. 4 (March, 1933), 311-20.—Social research and social theory are increasingly obliged to take account of the public. But there is considerable confusion as to the real meaning of this term. Consideration of various definitions and analysis of the functions which the public and public opinion carry on lead to the conclusion that there are special as well as general publics and that failure to recognize this fact prevents a full appreciation of the functions of public opinion. The basic functions of the general public are likely in the future to be restricted increasingly to settlement of broad matters of policy while special publics will assume the chief responsibility in their own fields. (VI, 2; VII, 7; IX, 6).—*M. L. P.*

#### VI. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

78. LÖWENTHAL, LEO. Zur Gesellschaftlichen Lage der Literatur [The Social Role of Literature]. *Z. f. Sozialforschung*, I, Nos. 1-2 (1932), 85-102.—Literature cannot be understood by references to the "irrational," the "folk soul," or the "creative personality." It must be conceived as being a function of certain social relationships, to a large extent of the ideological aspect of culture. The ideas embodied in literary works and the forms in which they are expressed are part of the general social situation of the time and group in which they were written. The sociological approach to literature must also study the influence which literary works exert on society. (VII, 5).—*E. A. S.*

79. SOROKIN, PITIRIM A. Life Span, Age Composition and Mortality of Social Organizations. *Mensch en Maatschappij*, IX, Nos. 1-2 (January, 1933), 69-85.—From a statistical study of the life-span of various organizations, the following conclusions are drawn: (1) the life of any social organization is finite; (2) the life-spans vary greatly in length, with non-economic organizations such as religious, political, and familial lasting longer than purely economic organizations; (3) within the same class may be observed (a) a negative correlation between rapidity of creation of an organization and its longevity, (b) the optimum size of an organization of given type at a given time, (c) the optimum point in homogeneity and heterogeneity of membership in organizations of the same time, (d) the optimum point in rigidity and flexibility of the constitution of the organizations in a single class, (e) the optimum point in exclusiveness and accessibility to new members. An organization persists longer in which all the component members fulfil functions adequate to their personal needs. The environment is also significant. (VII, 7).—*E. A. S.*

# VII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS, SOCIAL PATHOLOGY, AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

80. NAMIAS, AMERIGO. *Économie et justice* [Economy and Justice]. *Rev. Internat. de Soc.*, XL, Nos. 9-10 (September-October, 1932), 487-91.—The principal cause, of the misery amid plenty, now prevailing, is the maldistribution of wealth, which tends to increase with the extension of application of machines. The maldistribution is not an inevitable consequence of private ownership. Private property is not merely a social necessity, but a human instinct; still, it has undergone many restrictions, and can be further restricted, without resorting to socialism. To rectify the maldistribution—as a measure of justice, not of charity—the following proposals are advocated: steeply progressive tax-rates; state housing of laborers, first financed by government bonds, title gradually passing to occupants; limitations on inheritance. Such legislative correction of the conditions of distribution is necessary to justice, to economy, and to peace between the classes. (VIII, 1).—H. H.

81. WILLIAMS, FRANKWOOD E. Can Russia Change Human Nature? *Survey*, XXII, No. 3 (March, 1933), 137-43.—To date, all that we have known about human nature we have learned from studying individuals in a class-organized, competitive society. Under the conditions of such "captivity," certain problems have become acute: nervous and mental diseases, delinquency, prostitution, child-parent tensions, maladjustments in school, and husband-wife difficulties. In twenty years of mental-hygiene work, little or no impression has been made upon them. Under communism in Russia, these same problems either are not major social problems at all or so deep an impression has been made upon them that they are receding. In Russia mental hygiene is inherent in the social organization. (VIII, 4; I, 1).—M. C. S.

# VIII. THEORY AND METHODS

82. HORTCHEEMER, MAX. *Bemerkungen über Wissenschaft und Krise* [Reflections on Science and the Crisis]. *Z. f. Sozialforschung*, I, Nos. 1-2 (1932), 1-7.—The contemporary crisis in science is part of the general social and economic crisis, since science as a social function reflects the contradictions of present-day society. Social interests do not provide criteria for scientific truth, but they condition the phraseology, the methods, the setting of problems, and the choice of objects of investigation. (IX, 5).—E. A. S.

83. THURNWALD, R. *Realistische Soziologie* [Realistic Sociology]. *Sociologus*, VIII, No. 12 (1932), 1-7.—Sociology would become active in a realistic sense by concentrating its attention upon three contemporary societal problems representative of its transitional stage: (1) need for social inventions parallel to the technical discoveries which stimulate new attitudes and patterns of behavior; (2) new agencies of communication and economic interdependence, on the one hand, with the assertion of national individualities, on the other; and (3) the transfer of these two conditions to the non-European-American nations. This latter, however, offers still further embarrassments both to the native and to the European peoples. (IX, 5).—J. D. L.

84. WIESE, LEOPOLD V. *Soziographie und Beziehungslehre* [Sociography and the Theory of Interhuman Relationships]. *Mensch en Maatschappij*, IX, Nos. 1-2 (January, 1933), 107-14.—The conception of sociology as the theory of interhuman relationships has often been attacked as attempting to separate form from content in social phenomena. This attack results from a misunderstanding of the use of the concepts and the methods of approach. Sociology cannot be regarded as synonymous with social psychology. Furthermore, sociology is not merely arid categorizing since it has shown its fruitfulness in many aspects of applied sociology. Without a rigorous, systematic approach, sociography is doomed to sterility. (IX, 6).—E. A. S.

85. DUPRAT, J. Proudhon, précurseur de la Sociologie (Proudhon, Forerunner of Sociology). *Revista di Sociologia*, Anno VI, Ser. II (November-December, 1932), 48-62.—Proudhon preceded Durkheim in emphasizing the primacy of the social, i.e., that the collectivity is something different from the summation of the separate individuals constituting it. Proudhon also saw that political, juridical, educational, and moral life are dependent on the progressive organization of society. He drew more clearly than anyone else the ethical conclusions from sociology, which are inherent in it. (IX, 7).—E. A. S.

86. STERN, BERNHARD. The Letters of Ludwig Gumplowicz to Lester F. Ward. *Sociologus*, Beiheft 1 (1933), pp. 1-32.—Gumplowicz' letters sent to Ward between 1897 and 1909 reveal his great respect for the work of the American sociologist and his efforts to spread the knowledge of Ward's doctrines in European countries. (IX, 7).—E. A. S.

87. McCORMICK, THOMAS C. The Development of Co-operative Social Research in Leading Northern Universities and Its Status in Colleges and Universities of the Southwest. *Southw. Soc. Sci. Quart.*, XIII, No. 4 (March, 1933), 368-71.—Few real social problems, even of purely theoretical interest, can be adequately solved within the narrow limits of a single traditional department or field of specialization. As a consequence a number of tentative efforts have been made in various colleges with frequent development of more or less formal organizations. Harvard, Yale, and the universities of Chicago and Minnesota furnish outstanding examples in the North. Of fifteen Southwestern and Western institutions questioned, four reported organizations to promote research. The findings presented indicate that, while the amount of joint research in progress was said to be slight, the recognition of the importance and need was surprisingly general. (IX, 7).—M. L. P.

88. OBRDLÍK, ANTONÍN. Miroslav Tyrš—sociální myslitel (Myroslav Tryš—Social Thinker). *Sociologická Revue*, III, Nos. 3-4 (1932), 251-61.—Dr. Miroslav Tyrš, the founder of the "Sokol," must be appreciated as a sociological thinker, ahead of his times, who formed a link in the national tradition from Havlicek to Palacký and Masaryk. His work is characterized by his faith in human progress, and his acceptance of the evolutionary theories of Darwin. The social system should be characterized by free moral obedience. (IX, 7).—J. S. R.

89. ŠAPOVAL, MYKYTA J. Soudobá ukrajinská sociologická myšlenka a práce (Contemporary Ukrainian Sociological Thought and Work). *Sociologická Revue*, III, Nos. 3-4 (1932), 293-97.—The victory of Ukrainian revolution brought the acceptance of sociology as a science for the purpose of changing the present society. The chief center of teaching is the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences, with its social-economic and historical-philological section. The section is subdivided into: (1) the Ukrainian demographical institute; (2) the committee for the study of common law, civil law, economics, financial administration, etc.; (3) the Institute for history of Ukraine; (4) the Ukrainian Institute of Marxism in Charkov, divided into philosophical-sociological, economic, historical, nationalistic, and preparatory divisions; (5) the Ukrainian Scientific Experimental Institute of Pedagogy in Charkov; (6) the Ukrainian Psycho-Neurological Institute in Kijev; and (7) the works of the Ethnographical Society. (IX, 7).—J. S. R.

90. KINKEL, JAN. Sociologie v Bulharsku (Sociology in Bulgaria). *Sociologická Revue*, III, Nos. 3-4 (1932), 298-99.—The Bulgarian public is showing increasing interest in sociological problems. In 1921 the Bulgarian Sociological Society was founded, with thirty regular members. Another association, the Social-Philosophical Society, composed exclusively of the followers of modern German idealistic social philosophy, has a small following. (IX, 7).—J. S. R.



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## TOWARD A SCIENCE OF SOCIETY

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### ABSTRACT

*Crime, Law, and Social Science*, although the outcome of a three years' survey of criminology and criminal justice in the United States and abroad by an eminent group of scholars in various social and allied fields, is the work of only the director and one member of the survey staff. The main conclusion of the book is that criminology is not now a science, that investigators in psychology and sociology, upon which it depends, are incapable of doing scientific work, and that the only hope is to draft specialists from mathematics and the physical and biological sciences to apply scientific method to social study. In supporting their contentions the authors are ambiguous in their definition of the nature of science; they overemphasize the rational phase in their discussion of scientific method; and in their distinctions between independent and dependent empirical sciences they ignore the fact that the sciences are essentially interdependent, constituting a structural and genetic whole, and containing immature as well as mature elements. Specialists in the fields of chemistry, physics, and mathematics are prone to see social phenomena through the eyes of their specialties alone and fail to make analysis of those variables which are unique in social relations. The authors' analysis of what they regard as five misconceptions regarding the nature of a science of society indicates rather the relative complexity of the subject matter and the immature condition of social studies. It should not be regarded as indicative of the impossibility of doing scientific work in the social studies.

After a three years' survey of criminology and criminal justice in the United States and abroad, in which an eminent group of scholars in various social and allied fields participated, there has ensued a treatise,<sup>1</sup> prepared by the director of the survey and one member of the research staff, which bids fair to mark a milestone in sociological thinking in this country, if in no other sense than in that of catalysis. Not that the two authors of the book regard it as a catalytic agent

<sup>1</sup> Jerome Michael and Mortimer J. Adler, *Crime, Law, and Social Science*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1933. Pp. xxix+440.

(they view it rather as the discovery of new elements for the building of a science of society), but that its derogatory pronouncements regarding workers in the field of sociology should goad the latter to a thoroughgoing re-examination of the fundamentals of their discipline. Although the declared immediate aim of the book is to encourage the establishment of facilities for the scientific study of crime, its incidental aim (as avowed by the authors) is to assist sociology and psychology to become empirical sciences, the contention being (among other things) that these disciplines are not now sciences in any strict sense of the word.

As the present writer sees it, the treatise must be taken seriously for at least two reasons: First, in that behind it, albeit not incorporated in it or in agreement with it, stands the work of an important group of scholars representing three years of intensive investigation in this country and elsewhere. If this type of research may be largely disregarded in a covering work, scholars in the social field as a whole should seriously inquire into the reasons therefor.<sup>2</sup> Second, the book would seem to merit serious study in that an investigation on such an extensive scale could hardly be carried through without the expenditure of a large sum of money, and the question will naturally arise as to the propriety of utilizing such sums in what may appear to many as an abortive effort. There are important sociological investigations which cannot be properly pursued without considerable financial backing, and adequate support for worthwhile social research by and large will doubtless be jeopardized unless students of society can arrive at some working agreement as to fundamentals and will take vigorous action when significant problems are misstated and solutions are offered which are ill considered or trifling.

The book in question contains much that is constructive and worthy of careful thought. At the same time it also apparently contains considerable argumentative material of a doubtful character which should not be accepted without definite challenge.

In analyzing this work the method of its presentation and the character of its approach to the study of criminology should be held clearly before the mind. The finalistic and dogmatic vein in which it

<sup>2</sup> The writer has been advised on reliable authority that the majority of the members of the survey staff do not at all share the views of the two authors of the book.

is put together carries with it the advantage of setting forth in bold relief what are regarded as the main issues, but it also possesses the disadvantage of pushing certain criticisms to extremes and, what is of more importance, of giving, here and there, to erroneous and illogical reasoning the appearance of truth. It is verily a high and desirable plane upon which the authors project their thinking. In their portrayal of "the essential traits of scientific knowledge and scientific method," it is maintained that "the reader who would disagree with any thesis advanced in the subsequent analysis must demonstrate his error; he cannot dismiss it in favor of some other 'opinion' which he prefers to hold" (p. 56 n.). To eschew wishful thinking and illogical reasoning is an ambition to be highly commended, even though the ambition be only in part realized. At the same time, where errors do occur in such an attempt at rigorous analysis, it is all the more important that they be definitely pointed out.

The approach of the authors amounts to a critique and not a summary of knowledge in the fields of criminology and criminal justice. The individual reports of members of the survey staff to the director, containing detailed information regarding methods of crime detection and apprehension of offenders, the administration of criminal law, the treatment of offenders, and the keeping of criminal records and statistics, were not printed with the present treatise, nor are they systematically incorporated in it. The findings and conclusions of the staff are rather interpreted and evaluated in the light of what the two authors regard as broader principles of scientific method. Thus no matter how well the book presents illustrative material bearing on the status of criminology and criminal justice in this country and abroad, the primary question to determine is whether its basic contentions are sound. These hinge upon its main conclusion that criminology is not now a science, both because the disciplines upon which it depends are not as yet sciences and because investigators in all social fields have, it is claimed, wrongly conceived their scientific task. These basic contentions, therefore, have to do with the nature of science and of scientific method, with the relations between the various sciences and adjacent fields of knowledge, with the application of scientific method to psychology and sociology, and with misconceptions regarding the nature of a science of society.



## THE NATURE OF SCIENCE

Although one of the contentions of the authors is that the term "science" should be strictly construed, there is, in various portions of the book, an unfortunate and unnecessary looseness in its use, which amounts at times to inconsistency. It is hard to see how, in rigorous discourse, such a basic concept can be employed catagorically at one point to designate empirical knowledge exclusively (p. 55), on other occasions to cover both empirical and rational systems of thought (pp. 60-63), and in still other connections to apply to social "sciences" which, it is elsewhere repeatedly insisted, contain nothing scientific in them (pp. 90, 390-91). Economic theory is certainly a "rational system of thought," and criminology is also a "science" in this sense, although neither of these fields may conceivably contain much that is strictly empirical except of the "raw" variety. Furthermore, the statement that "sciences can be found in all degrees of organization, ranging from the purely empirical science to the purely rational science" (p. 63), can readily be thought to suggest that rational "science" is more "scientific" than empirical "science." The authors apparently find it difficult to control a rationalistic bias.

Their ambiguity in the use of the word "science" is not entirely remediable. While it is true that they evidently have empirical science in mind for the most part in their argument and often use the modifying adjective, there is an inherent difficulty here which is by no means brought to the surface. In one breath it is maintained that the difference between an empirical science and a rational discipline is "perfectly clear" (p. 62). In the next breath it is admitted that a given "science" may have both empirical and rational elements. In fact, it would appear that, no matter how "empirical" a science may be, as, e.g., in physics or chemistry, it must contain rational as well as empirical elements. Rationality is the essence of theory and analysis. Without these there could be no empirical science; there would be only "raw empiricism" (pp. 69-71). It should also be noted that "raw" rationalism may be just as much a sign of scientific immaturity as "raw" empiricism and that a definition of science which stresses one of these more than the other cannot make the matter "perfectly clear." At the same time, part of the aforementioned ambiguity might have been avoided by strictly limiting the use of

the word "science" to such fields of knowledge as physics, chemistry, or biology, and by employing other concepts elsewhere, such as "discipline" when designating a rational system as such, and "study" when referring to a social field. In the present paper, therefore, a "science" will be held to mean a generally recognized empirical science, as physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, or biology.

The extent to which the analysis of the nature of science (pp. 56-63) can be accepted may now be broadly indicated: On the empirical side, a science must go beyond mere information or description based upon individual observation or common-sense knowledge alone; the observations must be accurate and reliable, they must be tested repeatedly by competent observers, must cover broad and significant categories of events rather than particular things or mere aggregates of particular things, must be supplemented by experimental, statistical, or other special observational techniques, and must be directed by an adequate "theory or analysis." On the rational side, a science, in its propositions or generalizations, must transcend mere opinion or common belief; its propositions must have a generality which is broader than the empirical evidence from which they are drawn; they must nevertheless rest upon such evidence and be validated by it, must possess the formal character of expressing a relation between variables, and must be members of "compendent sets of propositions." An empirical science may be distinguished from a purely rational discipline as follows: The one rests upon an observational as opposed to a rational base, whereas the other is built upon a set of arbitrary definitions, axioms, and postulates; the propositions of the one are compendent but not systematic, while the other builds upon its rational base a dependent group of theorems which are thoroughly systematized; the empirical hypotheses of the one are validated by the process of induction, i.e., by reference to further observational evidence; the rational theorems of the other are proved by deductive logic solely. To inductive proof in empirical science the adjective "probable" applies: to the purely deductive proof of a rational discipline the adjective "true" is appropriate.

#### SCIENTIFIC METHOD

What the book presents regarding the methodology of science, although in part excellent, is somewhat vitiated by a one-sided em-

phasis and by an omission, which lead here and there to false conclusions. Only the minimum requirement of scientific method is dealt with, viz.: "that it shall employ techniques of observation and measurement designed to obtain data in terms of which a general proposition can be inductively established as possessing a definite degree of probability. This requirement is a complicated one; it involves criteria of relevancy; it involves the intricacies of inductive proof and the subtleties of a calculus of probabilities" (pp. 63-64). Elsewhere the prerequisite is stated thus:

The proper cooperation of theoretical analysis, observation, and inference is the essential trait of empirical scientific method. To restrict the use of the term scientific to such research as manifests the cooperation of these three processes is merely to hold that no research is properly called scientific unless it succeed in determining the probability of a scientific proposition [p. 67].

And again it is asserted that the "basic, indispensable trait of empirical scientific method" is an "interplay of analysis and investigation" (p. 71).

All three of these quotations, taken from different parts of the authors' discussion on this subject, emphasize the essential duality of scientific method, i.e., a duality of observation and theory. Nor is there any suggestion here that the rational phase is more important than the empirical phase or vice versa. This would seem to be as it should be. Nevertheless, for most of the rest of the discussion on scientific method, a radically different point of view is exhibited, the implication being that the rational phase is the more important or the more immediate or the antecedent phase. The following quotation, which might be added to, will suffice to indicate this one-sided emphasis: "A science cannot come into existence in a given field until a theory or an analysis has been constructed. Prior to the existence of a theory it is impossible for scientific research to be done" (p. 65). This pseudo-truth is "validated" by a curious line of reasoning. Exploratory investigations are pointed to as possible preliminaries to scientific work, their usefulness depending upon "the suggestiveness of the descriptive knowledge" which results. Out of such knowledge a theory can be constructed by "a rational process which transforms the materials it uses" (p. 65). In short, it would seem that, although "exploratory research cannot by itself create a sci-

ence," it may nevertheless through a pure process of rationalization and without the use of any more careful observations whatsoever (we are led to infer), form the basis of a proper theory or analysis, which may in turn be used for scientifically directed research. Such an inferential conclusion is entirely erroneous and would not have resulted had the one-sided emphasis with respect to scientific method been avoided.

This leads us to the authors' important omission in their discussion of scientific method. It is just as futile as the chicken-versus-egg argument to insist that either a proper theory or a proper observational technique must come first in scientific research. Both theory and observation are necessarily "raw" and "exploratory" in the embryonic stage of the scientific development of any field of knowledge. The history of science demonstrates this situation time and again. It is the growth factor which is omitted in the author's discussion. To say that "a science must first exist before it can grow" (p. 6) misses the truth entirely, which is, rather, that bodies of knowledge composed originally of individual observations and common-sense impressions may nevertheless develop into a science provided the "raw empiricism" of its beginnings gives way in time to a proper observational technique, and provided also that early preconceptions mature ultimately into proper theories and analyses.

#### RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCIENCES AND ADJACENT FIELDS OF KNOWLEDGE

The section of the book dealing with this subject (pp. 77-87) leaves much to be desired. Two infelicities of definition run through the whole of it: one, the attempted distinction between "independent and dependent empirical sciences"; the other, the arbitrary and bifurcate delimitations of the fields of psychology and sociology.

The attempted distinction between independent and dependent empirical sciences appears for the most part meaningless. Although the subject matter of every recognized empirical science consists in a "set of variables which *as a set* [my italics] are not found in any other science" (p. 77), nevertheless some of these variables are almost always borrowed from other sciences. These two facts, if we apply the authors' attempted definitions, would render the sciences both "in-

dependent" and "dependent" at the same time and would thus completely confuse the issue with respect to such "dependent" disciplines as criminology which are also designated in the book as "hybrid," a much more satisfactory designation.

The mathematical disciplines and the recognized empirical sciences show, from one point of view, a definite structural relationship which rather conclusively demonstrates their dependence. Before the basic variables of the sciences of biology and geology could be clearly analyzed and defined (which analyses occurred around 1860 and 1830, respectively), certain fundamentals in chemistry had to be established. Before the variables of chemistry could be understood (which began to be fairly possible after about 1780), certain principles in physics had to be made clear. Before the basic variables of physics could be known (and mature analysis here occurred between 1630 and the end of the century), certain principles of mathematics and astronomy had to be worked out. Before astronomy could mature into an empirical science (which was after 1600), the mathematical disciplines had to be elaborated and quickened at the touchstone of empirical reality. The relationships between the sciences, and their interdependence, have been more fully analyzed by the present writer in other connections,<sup>3</sup> and this analysis need not be repeated here.

From the structural point of view, and with a caution that mechanical analogies must not be carried too far, scientific knowledge may in part be likened to a building several stories high, mathematics constituting the foundation, physics the first floor, chemistry the second, modern astronomy the third, and geology, biology, and psychology the fourth, fifth, and sixth, respectively. Not until the nineteenth century were the lower stories complete enough for the superstructure to be put into place. Basic construction work is still in process on the upper floors and when the whole edifice is sufficiently secure, one might add in anticipation, a sociological roof garden may cap the whole.

This analogy should be regarded as touching the interrelation of the sciences at only one point. It must not be thought to imply too

<sup>3</sup> Cf. *Seven Seals of Science* (New York: Century Co., 1927), pp. 224, 134, 165, 265, 179, 312, 329, 105-6, 355, 354, 345-46, 383.

much completion in the foundation and "lower" floors before the "upper" stories can be put into place. The sciences are interdependent, "upper" sciences contributing often to further developments of "lower" ones. The only significance of the structural analogy is to illustrate what appears to be an outstanding fact, viz., that certain fundamentals in underlying disciplines and sciences must become established before the next disciplines in order can be scientifically organized. For example, around 1830 there was a vast amount of geological material on hand, but it was left for Lyell and his contemporaries, using improved physical and chemical methods of analysis, to formulate those basic variables, the use of which, after the first third of the century, made it possible to organize geology into a veritable science. A like situation occurred in biology around 1860. An even greater amount of biological material had been gathered from the ancient Greek and earlier periods down to that time; but, until the cell and protoplasm had been clearly discerned, and until the significance of the germ layers and their relation to bodily structure had been made clear (both these discoveries requiring the wide application of physical and chemical techniques), it was hardly possible to say that biology had become in any true sense a science. Similarly it would seem that, despite the interest which eminent thinkers and common people alike have taken from ancient times to the present day in the gathering of impressions about mental phenomena, psychology could not find its basic variables and probably has not yet found them because the fundamental facts of biology upon which it depends (namely, facts about the sense organs and the glandular and nervous systems, especially about the spinal cord and the brain) did not begin to become clearly analyzed until after the middle of the last century. Extensive physical, chemical, and biological techniques would seem to be essential to the clear understanding of these processes, and so far as the brain itself is concerned, there is still much to be done before its detailed relation to mental phenomena would seem to be sufficiently clear.

Turning to sociology, there has of course been an enormous amount of material gathered in this field, dating back at least as far as data gather with respect to mental and biological phenomena, so that it is for one thing hardly possible to say that the youthfulness of

social study as a scientific discipline is due to lack of time. From before the days of Socrates and Aristotle there have been unceasing efforts to gather and understand social data. Without wishing for a moment to seem to belittle or underestimate the importance of recent efforts to develop statistical and other adequate methods for more properly accumulating and evaluating these data, the present writer nevertheless believes that all such endeavor, important as it is, is in the nature of a preliminary taxonomic procedure, much as the Linnean classification in biology was preliminary to the more adequate classifications which later developed in the light of the evolutionary hypothesis. This belief is based upon two assumptions, frankly hypothetical and subject to verification or disproof: first, that a reasonably accurate understanding of man's biological and psychological potentialities and desires is needed before the norm or norms toward which man may build his society can be satisfactorily formulated; and, second, that society, unlike other basic factors around which sciences have been built, is itself so largely man-made that it is in good part within man's power to reshape, rebuild, revise, or change by deliberate effort its essential constitution. If these two hypotheses are justified, and the writer is fully aware that they are not held by a number of sociologists who are inclined to feel that society is just as "natural" a product as is a biological organism, it would seem fundamentally necessary that the potentialities and desires of human beings, and the ethical ideals toward which man may build his society, must be reasonably explicit before any scientifically constructive measures of social change or social control can be formulated. This conclusion is not meant to imply that there is nothing constructive in society as it is at present organized, but merely to suggest that, without scientifically devised ethical norms and a sufficient knowledge of human nature, it is hardly possible to make any satisfactory demarcation between the "good" and the "bad," the essentially social and antisocial, the inherently criminal and normal in society. The general relevance of such considerations to the difficulties of fashioning sociology into a science would seem to be fairly clear. The ground may even now not be sufficiently ready for the scientific maturation of sociology, though this should not be taken to suggest that no constructive sociological research can be undertaken at the present time.

Two important considerations not developed in the book become illuminated by a genetic and structural picture of the relationship between the sciences and adjacent fields of knowledge. One is that during early periods in their growth, as already suggested, so-called "raw" empiricism and "raw" analysis were the only possible procedures, since the basic concepts upon which they later built their empirical structures had not yet been provided. During these preliminary periods it was impossible to distinguish mere opinion and common-sense description and analysis from anything more "rigorous." Only as antecedent sciences or disciplines furnished the necessary basic variables could better observational technique and more rational analysis come.

The other consideration is, as has also been touched upon, that the basic physiological and genetic concepts upon which it would seem that psychology must ultimately rear its empirical structure were almost entirely lacking until after the middle of the last century (and some of them have not yet been provided), so that one should not be too harsh with psychology and psychologists under the circumstances. The authors have presumed to take upon themselves the task of diagnosing the difficulties now confronting psychology. Had they been less arbitrary and more discerning in their diagnosis, the patient would not have been made to look nearly so sick. Similar comments apply to their diagnosis of the ills of sociology.

Turning to the attempted definitions of psychology and sociology, one is met with purely arbitrary demarcations, which not only do violence to rational analyses (such as have been fairly well projected after generations of effort by specialists in these fields), but which appear to be typical examples of that very individual opinion which the authors decry so roundly. It is submitted that there could hardly be anything more naïve than the attempted division of a certain area of knowledge into psychology as the study of *man qua man*, human physiology as the study of *man qua animal*, and sociology as the study of *man's environment* (pp. 79-80). To determine where man's animal nature leaves off and his human nature begins is confusing enough; but, in addition, human nature expresses itself in a distinctive culture, which proves to be not an insignificant part of man's environment. Hence to study human nature ("psychology") resolves itself in large measure into a study of the cultural aspects of



man's environment ("sociology"), which leaves the confusion of terms and variables in these disciplines in a worse state than the authors purport to find them. Add to this the fact that there is no provision in the assumed definitions for such studies as animal psychology, anthropology as the "science of man," and geology and human geography dealing with man's environment, and the confusion becomes worse confounded. Again, despite the authors' repeated insistence that sociology is the study of man's environment generically considered, the latter is at one point (p. 80 n.) made the "subject matter of a number of sciences," of which sociology is only one among others. In this connection the illustration of a "sociological" (environmental) fact taken from demand in economics (p. 84) represents less than half the truth. Demand is not merely a function of price but also (and particularly so) of the utility of the commodity to the consumer; and utility is a psychological as well as an environmental matter.

Surely there is no advance in analysis when arbitrary and confusing definitions are substituted for the painstaking efforts of many scholars in these fields. Not to enter upon controversial ground, the concise definitions recorded in Webster's *Collegiate Dictionary* will suffice to suggest the more rational approach. There psychology is defined as "the science of mind; systematic knowledge and investigation of [its] genesis, powers, and functions."<sup>4</sup> Sociology is defined as "the science of the constitution, phenomena, and development of society," while society is in turn defined as "a group of individuals united by common interest and having some organization."<sup>5</sup> For further analysis of these fields, reference is again made to the present writer's work already cited, chapter xiii on "Modern Psychology" and chapter xiv on "Social Science in the Making."

<sup>4</sup> For the reader interested in a recent searching analysis of the relation between "mind" and "matter," the following work is recommended: *The Revolt against Dualism* (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1930), by Arthur O. Lovejoy.

<sup>5</sup> For the reader who wishes to supplement these brief definitions, reference is made to the systematic writings of Wundt, James, Pierre Janet, Ribot, Titchener, Köhler, McDougall, among the psychologists, and to the writings of Comte, Spencer, Ward, Sumner, Giddings, Small, Durkheim, Pareto, Simmel, among the sociologists; also to the allusions to scope, status, and concepts of psychology and sociology in *Methods in Social Science*, ed. Stuart A. Rice. William James defined psychology as the "science of mental life, both of its phenomena and of their conditions." For several contrasted definitions of sociology see Small, *General Sociology* (1905), pp. 23 ff.

With respect to their definitions of psychology and sociology, the authors appear to go out of their way to build up straw men to knock down. What confusion they find regarding these disciplines (p. 86) seems largely of their own making. It may be admitted that "criminology is a subject matter dependent upon the subject matters of psychology and sociology; and that, therefore, the existence and development of empirical sciences in the fields of psychology and sociology are necessarily prerequisite to the existence and development of an empirical science of criminology" (p. 77). But nothing appears to have been gained by the dubious and devious attempt at argumentation and definition in the pages that follow this quoted statement. The sciences are essentially interdependent, constituting a structural and genetic whole, and containing immature as well as mature elements, in the light of which fact the embryonic "sciences" of psychology and sociology may be best defined and understood. Psychology, the study of mental phenomena, would seem to be built upon biology as previously indicated. Similarly it would appear that sociology, the study of human relations and institutions, must in large part find its basic variables in human biology and human psychology, both of which are themselves relatively recent additions to the family of the sciences.

#### SCIENTIFIC METHOD AS APPLIED TO PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY

The main conclusions of the book (pp. 390 ff.) are, to repeat, that criminology is not now a science, that it depends upon psychology and sociology which themselves are not sciences, that these disciplines are not sciences because psychologists and sociologists are incapable of doing scientific work, and that the only hope is to draft specialists from mathematics and the physical and biological sciences to apply scientific method to social study (p. 405). It has already been indicated that, although somewhat modified, the first two parts of these conclusions may be accepted. The last two parts would seem to represent palpable error.

Workers in mathematical, physical, and biological fields have already for a considerable period of time turned to psychology and social study. Some of them have assisted in bringing these disciplines nearer to scientific maturity, as witness the achievements of the early nineteenth-century physicists and physiologists (Weber,

Fechner, Mueller, Helmholtz, *et al.*) who transformed mental philosophy into the rudiments of psychology. But many others who have transferred their allegiance from mathematics and empirical science to social study would appear to have done more harm than good in the false analogies and hasty generalizations which they brought with them. The result, from this point of view, has been that theories, accurate enough in the empirical sciences from which they are taken but largely invalid as applied to society, have been introduced into social study in abundance: mechanistic analogies (through such men as Descartes, Hobbes, Weigel, Leibniz, Herbart, Fourier, Solvay, Ostwald), environmental analogies (through such men as Cuvier, Baer, Lamarck, Ritter, Metchnikoff, Ratzel, Huntington), organismic analogies (through such men as Pascal, Lessing, Comte, Lilienfeld, Hertwig, Worms), anthropo-racial analogies (through such men as Galton, Gobineau, Pearson, Lapouge, Ammon), evolutionary analogies (through such men as Darwin, Spencer, Novikov, Vaccaro, Tarde, Marx, Ferri).<sup>6</sup> Containing considerable surface plausibility, being fathered often by a recognized scholar in an established science, and introducing technical terms the complete significance of which could not be readily comprehended by the majority of students of society, these analogies were at first accepted as manna from heaven; in some quarters the present tendency is to go to the opposite extreme and regard them for the most part as toadstools.

This new appraisal is hardly more constructive than the old, for the basic disciplines and sciences may and do assist social study in important ways: mathematics, physics, and chemistry in supplying principles of mass action and statistical and other rigorous techniques appropriate to social study; astronomy and geology in providing a knowledge of the limitations and potentialities of natural environment; biology and psychology in suggesting the parts played by heredity and intelligence in social organization. Man is, after all, part of the animal kingdom and subject not only to the general laws of biology and psychology and to the limitations of astronomical and geological environment applying to the whole of organic existence, but also to the laws of the sciences and disciplines upon which these

<sup>6</sup> Cf. Sorokin, *Contemporary Sociological Theories* (New York: Harper Bros., 1928).

depend, viz., upon chemistry, physics, and mathematics. Nevertheless, when specialists in these various fields have turned to social study, they have not been content to point out wherein the principles of their specialties apply to man and to his relations with other men, but they have been prone to see social phenomena through the eyes of their specialties alone and have thus founded schools of social thought named exclusively after their sciences. The chief shortcoming of all such pseudo-schools of sociology is their stress upon factors which man has in common with the rest of the universe. In this inverted emphasis the human and social factors have usually been completely overlooked or have been so distorted that the net result is even worse. While it is important to hold in mind that there are environmental, hereditary, and mental factors in social organization, human society is much more than a combination of general environment, heredity, and intelligence, since other animals also have these factors at their disposal or are conditioned by them and yet no other animal has developed anything resembling human society. What specialists from other fields usually overlook is that the primary concern of sociology is human society. They fail as a rule to make any analysis whatsoever of those variables which are unique in social relations, those factors and accomplishments which set man apart from the rest of material and animal existence, rather than those he has merely in common with the remainder of the universe. What is relevant in these pseudo-schools of social thought should not be neglected, but what is gross exaggeration, hasty generalization, false analogy, and raw analysis should be discarded, so that social theory may proceed without further incumbrance than it is bound to have because the disciplines upon which it depends most, viz., psychology and biology, still have essential facts to contribute before its own basic variables become clear.

It is therefore a gratuitous slander to insist that psychologists and sociologists as a whole are incapable of doing scientific work. Some of them doubtless are incapable, because they have had no training in empirical science; others who have had such training are blinded by hasty generalization and are equally impotent; but there are still others who have been trained both in the empirical sciences and in the social studies and are endeavoring against odds to formulate the

basic variables of psychology and sociology. Impatience and immature accusation will not hasten this consummation but will only serve to confuse the situation still further.

MISCONCEPTIONS REGARDING THE NATURE OF A  
SCIENCE OF SOCIETY

In the book are given five real or alleged misconceptions regarding the nature of a science of criminology (pp. 72-77). The reasoning applied to this field would seem to apply equally well to any social field.

First is the contention that social phenomena are more complex, intangible, and relative to time and place than are physical and biological phenomena, which contention the authors categorically deny. As the present writer sees the matter, there are two points of view implied here which it is well to keep separated. On the one hand, it is probably true that the present seeming complexity of social phenomena is due largely to our ignorance concerning their fundamental concepts and that a much greater simplicity and uniformity will be discerned after these concepts have been more clearly defined. The basic variables of one science are possibly just about as simple or complex, tangible or intangible, as the basic variables of any other science. On the other hand, having in mind the suggested hypothesis of a hierarchy of scientific knowledge, there is a sense in which the data of observation (as distinguished from basic variables as such) are not all of like simplicity or complexity. In this sense biological phenomena are more complex than chemical or physical phenomena, and sociological phenomena are more complex than psychological or biological phenomena. Not only do the laws of the physical and biological sciences apply to man and to a society of men, as already indicated, but the laws of psychology and sociology also apply. Social phenomena would thus seem to be more complex and elusive than any less inclusive type. And by the same token, the "structural" relation between the sciences would appear to render the variables of the "upper" sciences more difficult to formulate than those of the "lower" ones. In addition, time and place seemingly condition all kinds of phenomena—physical events least of all, bio-psychological events next, and social events apparently most of all. There is no confusion of history and observation here (pp. 72-73). History enters into all science, as has already been indicated.

Second is the contention that, since laboratory experimentation is inapplicable to social phenomena, no empirical science of society is possible. The authors' position on this score is very well presented and their summary is worth repetition, viz.:

In proportion as research is incapable of performing laboratory experiments in the narrowest sense of that term, its observational data must be developed by elaborate statistical and mathematical calculations. It is sufficient here for us to emphasize the unquestionable fact that the basic trait of empirical scientific method, namely, its use of empirical evidence to determine the probability of generalizations, is not at all dependent upon opportunities for laboratory experimentation [p. 73].

It might be added that in the past quarter of a century substantial progress has been made in developing adequate statistical and other techniques for empirical observation and assembling of social data<sup>7</sup> and that plans are at present under way for the more satisfactory preservation of sociological source materials.<sup>8</sup>

The third contention is that social data are not "metrical" and that empirical handling is therefore impossible. Here, again, the authors' position may in substance be maintained, viz., that the word "metrical" should not be confined to processes of simple counting, weighing, or linear measurement; that measurement may be very complex and inferential as in the "weighing" of the electron; that statistical and similar techniques are just as much "metrical" as any simpler form of measurement; and that no matter how complex or inferential the process may become, so long as it proves adequate to the problems imposed by social research, it will constitute all the "metrical" criterion necessary for the development of social science (p. 74).

The fourth contention is that criminology, psychology, and sociology are "young enterprises among the sciences" and that in time they should develop adequate techniques of observation and analysis. The authors' attempted answer to this contention, viz., that "there was no prior period of extended accumulation of merely descriptive knowledge" (p. 75) in the fields of physics and biology and

<sup>7</sup> Cf. *Methods in Social Science*, ed. Stuart A. Rice (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931), a case book compiled under the direction of the Committee on Scientific Method in the Social Sciences of the Social Science Research Council.

<sup>8</sup> See reports of the Joint Committee on Materials for Research of the Social Science Research Council and the American Council of Learned Societies.

that workers in social fields are constitutionally incompetent when it comes to scientific investigation, must be categorically denied. The most charitable response to the first part of this answer is that the authors have simply not informed themselves on the history of physics and biology. In response to the second part of their answer, it is sufficient to repeat that the social fields have drawn workers in abundance from the mathematical disciplines and from the physical and biological sciences, where they had already demonstrated their ability to do scientific work, so that, if they were unable to show substantial results in the social field, it is more logical to infer that the difficulties lie in the complexity and scientific immaturity of the subject matter rather than in any inherent incompetence in the men themselves. At the same time, it must be repeated that there are still too many workers in the social field who have no scientific background, who come to their work with misconceptions and fixed prejudices which they are apparently seeking to rationalize, and that, so long as they remain prominent in university instruction and research, the scientifically trained and unbiased workers in the field will be rendered incapable of making substantial progress except in the perfection of the basic statistical and other mathematical techniques which the "wishful thinking" type of worker cannot understand anyway and therefore finds no way to dominate.

The fifth contention, beginning in the book at the bottom of page 75 where it is called "second defence," is much deeper than the authors seem to appreciate. To attempt to make the imputed essential difference between social "science," on the one hand, and physical and biological science, on the other, hinge upon an alleged distinction between "inexact" and "exact" methodology would appear to miss the issue completely. Social "science" may become ever so exact and still be "essentially different" in some basic respect from the rest of the sciences. This is not the place to enter into the details of this very important contention, although a few brief reminders may suggest the extent to which, if true, it must complicate the problem of turning social study into social science.

In nature are found what are apparently relatively fixed "laws," using "laws" to designate the objective uniformities themselves rather than man's understanding or interpretation of those uni-

formities. In the various societies that man has been instrumental in fashioning, there is as yet no evidence of such relative fixity or inevitability. This apparent difference between the whole group of natural sciences, on the one hand, and the social studies, on the other, may conceivably be resolved by assuming that a cosmic experimentation has been in process since primordial time, which has in part crystallized itself into set ways (we call them laws of nature) in the millions upon millions of years of its duration, so that in retrospect the results of the process seem very much fixed; whereas alongside of this result is seen the experimentation of man, who, as part of the cosmic process and yet as a "wilful" element in it, has for only a few thousand years been endeavoring to fashion a society. His experimentation has by no means as yet crystallized itself into set ways. At present the social order may in general be said to be relatively undefined; and it would seem to lie largely within the power of man's intelligent direction to "determine" what the laws of society shall ultimately be. On the basis of some such assumption the seeming discontinuity between the "laws" of nature and the "laws" of society may be theoretically resolved, but, in any event, as matters stand at present the indicated difference between the two broad groups of disciplines makes for an added complexity in the field of the social studies which should not be overlooked or underestimated.

With respect to these five considerations as a whole, whether one agrees or disagrees with the authors' analysis, there is no reason to regard them as indicative of the impossibility of doing scientific work in the social studies. To the present writer they indicate rather the relative complexity of the subject matter to be dealt with and the immature condition in which such studies still find themselves.

#### CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a word may be said about etiology and another about an opportunity the authors seem to have missed. Regarding the causes of crime, it is stated in this treatise that we know nothing scientifically, but the inference is drawn that, after the social studies have become empirical sciences, questions of etiology will be properly answered. Now the etiology of crime and what a society regards as ethically right and wrong must be intimately connected; and it is



to be noted that the authors place ethics unequivocally under the rationalistic part of their recommended Institute—under the Criminal Justice Division (pp. 393, 404, 407-8). If ethics is thus to be regarded solely as a rational discipline, what is to be its ultimate relation to empirical social science? Would not the question of etiology remain as nebulous as now unless this connection were satisfactorily established? The crucial ethical task of society as related to crime would seem to be to act as an arbiter between conflicting human desires and to erect standards which will best serve both the individual and the group. If such a task is to be decided by a process of pure rationalism, how can anything empirical with respect to etiology come out of it? Merely to raise such questions suggests the answer. Social ethics must apparently come to be regarded as a potential empirical science if the etiology of crime is to be thought of as scientifically determinable.<sup>9</sup> In such a determination, criminology and criminal justice can hardly be kept separated as the authors insist in their recommendations.

On the score of an opportunity missed, the situation would seem to be briefly as follows: The director of the survey upon which the book under review is based secured an eminent staff of specialists who spent several years making investigations and preparing reports, which were then submitted to him. In these reports, which the present writer has seen but which have not been published, are contained not only excellent analyses of the present status of criminology and of deficiencies in existing technical procedures and basic data, but also a well-balanced critique of scientific method and its application to social study. Instead of accepting these findings and this critique and preparing recommendations in accordance, the director and one member of the staff have apparently seized the occasion to embark on an excursion of their own in the interests of exhibiting a biased dialectic, have declared the remaining members of the survey staff (and virtually all other students of social phenomena) incapable of doing acceptable work, and have ended their jaunt with the bizarre suggestion that a criminological institute be organized composed chiefly of logicians and mathematicians, while making no pro-

<sup>9</sup> Cf. *Seven Seals of Science*, pp. 420-21.

vision for securing "valid and significant" criminological data (pp. 101-5).

The authors have missed the opportunity of making the most of the findings of the survey staff, of enlisting the co-operation of the more responsible and competent workers in the social field, and of formulating a practical program of next steps in the organization of a science of society.

It is undoubtedly true that, generally speaking, the establishment of sciences of psychology and sociology is to be regarded as fundamental to the thoroughgoing development of a science of criminology but it does not follow that practical studies in criminology as at present constituted cannot assist in the scientific formulation of more basic variables. In analyzing what is now regarded as criminal or defective behavior, it is possible to examine psychological and social phenomena in probably as close an approximation to laboratory isolation as is afforded anywhere in the social field. Much information is already available through official police, court, hospitalization, and detention channels. Special procedures may be applied here which would not be permitted with respect to what is thought of as normal behavior. In other respects, also, opportunities for close study of criminals and defectives maintain. Neither psychology nor sociology needs to be farther along before investigations in criminology can be pursued with constructive benefit to all three fields. The art of healing developed before, and assisted very materially in the formulation of, a science of biology. Through intensive and comprehensive investigations in such practical fields as criminology may in large part come the final maturation of social study into social science.

# A TECHNIQUE FOR ANALYZING SOCIOLOGICAL DATA CLASSIFIED IN NON-QUANTITA- TIVE GROUPS<sup>1</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

For statistical treatment of sociological data when the dependent variable is on a quantitative scale and the independent variables are not, it is first important to test the significance of the difference between means in sub-classes. By new and simple procedures the significance of the sums of differences between averages and of differences between differences, holding constant other factors, may now be tested. Application of these procedures to test scores of attitudes toward prohibition of 238 students of the University of Chicago in 1929 shows that, taken as a whole, the men were wetter than the women; students whose fathers were not reported as voting dry were wetter than students whose fathers were reported as voting dry; and students from neighborhoods not reported as dry were wetter than students from neighborhoods reported as dry. In each case the other two factors were held constant. Application of the same procedures to case-history ratings led to nearly identical conclusions, indicating that as far as results were concerned it made little difference whether test or case-history methods were used.

This paper is intended primarily to illustrate a method of statistical treatment which would seem to have possibilities of quite wide application in sociology when the dependent variable is on a quantitative scale and the independent variables are not.

Almost any sociological problem calls for classification of data into sub-groups. The more sets of relevant factors which one takes into account, the more confident one is that the relationship observed between any two of the factors is worth talking about. The limitation of the method of classification by sub-groups is, of course, that the

<sup>1</sup> The new method, illustrated in the present paper, of "holding factors constant" by treating the sums (or differences) of differences between means, is the work of F. Yates of Rothamsted Experiment Station, Harpenden, England, who approached the subject from a more general point of view than the present study and with a more elaborate mathematical treatment. See Yates, "The Principles of Orthogonality and Confounding in Replicated Experiments," *Journal of Agricultural Science*, XXIII, Part I, January, 1933, pp. 108-45. Yates's work is an adaptation of the method of analysis of variance developed by R. A. Fisher. The writer wishes to make acknowledgment to Mr. Yates and Dr. Fisher for valuable suggestions made in the early stages of preparation of the present paper, although they are not responsible for any errors of interpretation which may have crept in. See also A. E. Brandt, "The Analysis of Variance in a '2X5' Table with Disproportionate Frequencies," *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, XXVIII (June, 1933), 164-73.

number of groups increases in geometric proportion to the number of factors studied and the investigator is soon left with a very small number of cases in certain categories, even if he began with hundreds or even with thousands of cases. The method of partial correlation to some extent overcomes this difficulty when the factors are quantitative variables. Frequently, some of the factors are not expressible on a quantitative scale; in such a situation the methods of the present paper should be found useful.

The data were collected by the writer for a previously reported comparison of a statistical and case-history method of studying social attitudes. The subjects used were 238 students of the University of Chicago in 1929, who took H. N. Smith's test of attitudes toward prohibition (constructed by L. L. Thurstone's method of equal-appearing intervals) and who also wrote 1,000-word autobiographies of their experiences in connection with liquor and prohibition from childhood to the present.<sup>2</sup> In addition to illustrating a statistical technique for handling data grouped in non-quantitative categories the present paper may have some value in (a) indicating how a measure of attitudes may be used in studying the backgrounds of people shown to possess certain attitudes, and in (b) showing how the results of two independent studies may be compared.

The test scores of the 238 students who took the test of attitudes toward prohibition were divided into eight groups,<sup>3</sup> as indicated in

<sup>2</sup> The reliability coefficient of the test was .88 raw, .94 estimated. The case histories were read by four experienced judges and a given paper was rated on a graphic rating scale according to the extent to which the writer of the paper seemed to be favorable or unfavorable toward prohibition laws. The average of the six intercorrelations of the four judges with one another was .86; when all ratings were converted into standard scores and the corresponding ratings of two judges added, the average of the three intercorrelations was .92; thus yielding an estimated reliability coefficient of .96. The test scores of the 238 subjects were then correlated with the average standard scores assigned by the four judges, yielding a correlation of .82, or .87 corrected for attenuation. This was considered sufficiently high to suggest that, whatever the test and case-history ratings were measuring, they were measuring much the same thing; moreover, there was evidence that what they were measuring was attitudes, if attitudes are defined not according to some esoteric philosophical scheme but are defined more or less according to the modal use of the word in common speech. S. A. Stouffer, "An Experimental Comparison of a Statistical and Case History Method of Studying Social Attitudes," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, May, 1931, pp. 154-56.

<sup>3</sup> Data for making the classifications were taken from a questionnaire filled out by the student before taking the test. He was asked: "In liquor elections does your father

Table I, which shows in each group,  $n_s$ , the number of individuals;  $\bar{x}_s$ , the mean test score; and  $S(x - \bar{x}_s)^2$ , the sum of the squares of the deviations of the test scores from the mean test score in the group. The original test scores ranged from 2.4 to 9.2, a low score indicating a favorable attitude toward prohibition and a high score indicating an unfavorable attitude. The general mean of the 238 test scores was

TABLE I  
ATTITUDE SCORES ON PROHIBITION OF 238 STUDENTS

		FEMALES		MALES	
		Father's Vote Re- ported Dry	Father's Vote Not Reported Dry	Father's Vote Re- ported Dry	Father's Vote Not Reported Dry
Neighborhood reported dry . . .	$n_s$	37	24	28	19
	$\bar{x}_s$	4.07	5.54	4.53	5.76
	$S(x - \bar{x}_s)^2$	52.46	55.42	64.64	38.48
Neighborhood not reported dry.	$n_s$	20	46	22	42
	$\bar{x}_s$	4.90	5.72	5.33	6.38
	$S(x - \bar{x}_s)^2$	34.38	93.42	30.90	95.18

5.322 and the sum of the squares of the deviations from the general mean was 603.42.

Let us examine, first, the extent to which our knowledge of the sex and the two "background factors" helps us to predict the test scores. By measuring the squared deviations about the eight group means instead of about the general mean, we find that their sum is 464.88. This is 77 per cent as large as the original sum of 603.42, indicating that about 23 per cent of the variance in the attitude test

tend to vote dry . . . , wet . . . , can't say . . . ?" "Were the immediate neighborhoods in which you spent most of your childhood generally considered dry . . . , wet . . . , can't say . . . ?" Because of the small number of cases, 238, it was necessary to classify the answers to these two questions into two groups each. Quite arbitrarily, the "wet" and "can't say" answers were pooled, in both instances, since this divided the sample into more nearly equal groups than the pooling of the "dry" and "can't say" answers would have done; and since attitude scores of the "can't say" groups more nearly resembled those of the "wet" groups than of the "dry" groups. The check mark by an individual is, of course, a subjective judgment and the results of this study should be interpreted with this limitation constantly in mind.

scores is accounted for by knowledge of sex and the two "background factors." This is equivalent to the reduction in variability produced by a correlation coefficient of .48, which is much too large to be attributed to chance.

Turning now to the individual groups, we may investigate the differences between the average scores of those whose fathers were reported as voting dry and those whose fathers were not reported as voting dry. Four comparisons may be made. For example, take females from neighborhoods reported as dry. The average test score of the 37 whose fathers were reported dry was 4.07, as compared with an average test score of 5.54 among the 24 whose fathers were not reported as voting dry. The former were, as might be expected, more favorable toward prohibition, on the average. The difference is 1.47. Is it small enough to be accounted for by chance? The difference between two independent means will vary in random sampling with a variance of  $\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)$ . The most unbiased estimate of  $\sigma^2$  available from all the information in Table I is that obtained by pooling the sums of the squares of the deviations from all the means and dividing by the total number of cases, 238, less 8, the number of group means. For our estimate<sup>4</sup> we take  $\sigma^2 = 464.88/230 = 2.021$ , and form

$$t = \frac{5.54 - 4.07}{\sqrt{2.021 \left( \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{37} \right)}} = 3.9,$$

a difference which we see from a table of the normal curve is too large to be attributed to chance. We can feel confident in saying that

<sup>4</sup> It might be better in this case to take as the estimate of  $\sigma^2$  merely the sum of the squared deviations around the two means under comparison, divided by the number of cases in the two samples, less 2; provided that one had reason for thinking that the variance in the scores in these two groups was intrinsically different from the variance of the scores in the other groups. In the present case, there is no a priori reason for expecting a difference in variation, and the estimate of  $\sigma^2$  formed from the two samples alone is not significantly different from that formed from the remainder of the data, as can be tested by taking  $z$  = one-half the difference between their natural logarithms and referring to Table VI in R. A. Fisher, *Statistical Methods for Research Workers*, Appendix. It seems preferable, therefore, to use as an estimate a measure which takes into account all of the data available.

those girls from "dry neighborhoods" whose fathers were reported as voting dry made a significantly more favorable score toward prohibition than those from "dry neighborhoods" whose fathers were *not* reported as voting dry. Of precisely what factors in the home situation the father's vote is an index, cannot, of course, be ascertained from the data. The father's vote may or may not be an index of the sentiment in the home on prohibition, but it is clearly an index of something which differentiates the attitudes of the daughters.

In a similar manner, all pairs of differences between means in Table I may be studied, controlling the two other "disturbing" factors. The first two columns of Table II summarize the results. (The last two columns of the table will be discussed later in the paper.) Considering all values of  $t$  greater than 2 as significant, we see that all but one of the sex differences might be attributed to chance and two of the differences between the means of those from "dry" and "not reported dry" neighborhoods. On the other hand, the differences between attitude scores of those whose fathers were reported as voting dry and those whose fathers were not reported as voting dry are all greater than might reasonably be expected by chance.

Thus far, we have followed a conventional and well-known procedure. A new and simple method is now available for carrying the analysis some steps farther. It will enable us to pool our four comparisons with respect to a given factor and to report a summary finding based on all of our cases instead of on a portion of our cases; *while the other two factors still are held constant.*

Consider only those whose fathers were reported as voting dry. The difference, .46, between the mean score of males and females who came from a neighborhood reported as dry has a variance of  $\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{28} + \frac{1}{37} \right)$ . The difference, .43, between the mean scores of males and females who came from a neighborhood not reported as dry has a variance of  $\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{22} + \frac{1}{20} \right)$ . The difference of .46, based on one set of data, is independent of the difference of .43 based on another set of data. In each *set* the neighborhood factor is held constant, and if we add the values .43 and .46 the sum will still be free from the effect

TABLE II  
SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS OF VARIOUS GROUPS

	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORE OF THOSE WHOSE FATHERS WERE NOT REPORTED DRY AND OF THOSE WHOSE FATHERS WERE REPORTED DRY			
	Test Scores		Case-History Ratings	
	Difference	<i>t</i>	Difference	<i>t</i>
Females Neighborhood reported dry. . . . .	1.47	3.9	.782	3.4
Females Neighborhood not reported dry. . . .	.82	2.2	.308	1.3
Males Neighborhood reported dry. . . . .	1.23	2.9	.774	3.0
Males Neighborhood not reported dry. . . .	1.05	2.8	.450	2.0
	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORE OF THOSE WHOSE NEIGHBORHOOD WAS NOT REPORTED DRY AND OF THOSE WHOSE NEIGHBORHOOD WAS REPORTED DRY			
	Test Scores		Case-History Ratings	
	Difference	<i>t</i>	Difference	<i>t</i>
Females Father's vote reported dry. . . . .	.83	2.1	.565	2.3
Females Father's vote not reported dry. . . .	.18	0.5	.091	0.4
Males Father's vote reported dry. . . . .	.80	2.0	.570	2.3
Males Father's vote not reported dry. . . .	.62	1.6	.241	1.0
	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORE OF MALES AND FEMALES			
	Test Score		Case-History Ratings	
	Difference	<i>t</i>	Difference	<i>t</i>
Father's vote reported dry, neighborhood reported dry. . . . .	.46	1.3	.203	0.9
Father's vote reported dry, neighborhood not reported dry. . . . .	.43	1.0	.208	0.8
Father's vote not reported dry, neighborhood reported dry. . . . .	.22	0.5	.200	0.7
Father's vote not reported dry, neighborhood not reported dry. . . . .	.66	2.2	.350	1.9



of the neighborhood factor. (The reasonableness of this last statement may perhaps be seen graphically from Figure 1. It will be noted that in adding the two differences between averages no account is taken of the absolute location of the original means. If the original means had been at points *A*, *B*, *C*, and *D*, the sum of their differences obviously would have been the same as before; it is in this sense that the effect of the neighborhood factor is controlled.)

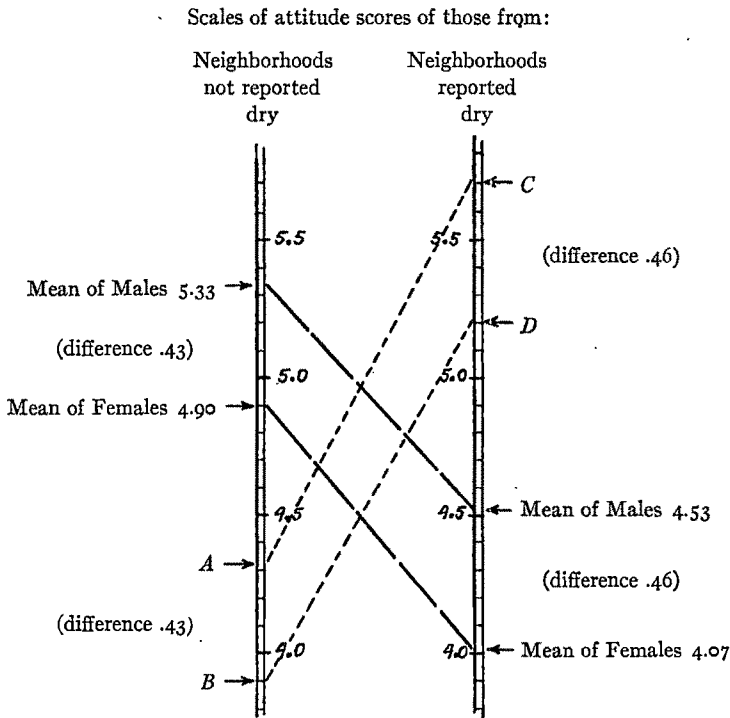


FIG. 1

By the theorem that the variance of a sum of two independently distributed quantities is equal to the sum of their variances, the sum, .89, will have a variance of

$$\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{28} + \frac{1}{37} + \frac{1}{22} + \frac{1}{20} \right),$$

which, taking  $\sigma^2 = 2.021$ , as before, is equal to .3197, yielding

$$t = \frac{.89}{\sqrt{.3197}} = 1.6,$$

a value, which, though larger than either  $t$  based on the two sets of differences considered individually, might be expected by chance about once in 10 times.

By a simple extension of the above reasoning one can say that, in general, the sum of  $k$  differences between two means, when the differences vary independently, has a variance of

$$\sigma^2 \left[ \sum_{s=1}^k \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right) \right].$$

With the aid of this formula, we can add all of the ( $k=4$ ) differences between mean attitude scores of men and women and test whether the men as a whole were significantly wetter in their attitudes than the women as a whole, with father's vote and neighborhood factors held constant. We find that

$$t = \frac{.46 + .43 + .22 + .66}{\sqrt{2.021 \left( \frac{1}{28} + \frac{1}{37} + \frac{1}{22} + \frac{1}{20} + \frac{1}{19} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{42} + \frac{1}{46} \right)}} = 2.3,$$

which must be interpreted as significant.<sup>5</sup>

It will be noted that the same denominator can be used in testing whether the difference, as a whole, found with respect to the factor of father's vote, or with respect to the factor of neighborhood, holding constant the other two factors, is significant. These results, together with other results to be discussed subsequently, are found in Table III.

Another type of question also is raised by comparisons of the type reported in Table II. For example, the difference between mean at-

<sup>5</sup> If all the values of  $n$  are equal, this result becomes equivalent to what would be obtained by using the methods of analysis of variance described by Fisher, *op. cit.*, chap. viii. The nature of sociological data is such that the values of  $n$  seldom will be equal. Under certain conditions, the estimate will be improved if a weighted instead of an unweighted sum is used. See Yates, *op. cit.*, pp. 118-20; and Brandt, *op. cit.*

titude scores of men and women whose fathers were reported as not voting dry but whose neighborhoods were reported as dry was .22, with  $t=0.5$ . Contrast this with corresponding difference between scores of men and women whose fathers also were reported as not voting dry and whose neighborhoods were *not* reported as dry, the difference being .66, with  $t=2.2$ . The question is: Was the difference between men and women from neighborhoods reported as dry

TABLE III  
SIGNIFICANCE OF SUMS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS, HOLDING  
TWO FACTORS CONSTANT

	TEST SCORES		CASE-HISTORY RATINGS	
	Difference	<i>t</i>	Difference	<i>t</i>
Sum of differences between mean scores of those whose fathers were not reported dry and those whose fathers were reported dry, holding sex and neighborhood constant. . . .	4.57	5.9	2.314	4.9
Sum of difference between mean scores of those whose neighborhood was not reported dry and of those whose neighborhood was reported dry, holding sex and father's vote constant. . . . .	2.43	3.1	1.469	3.1
Sum of difference between mean scores of males and females, holding father's vote and neighborhood constant. . . . .	1.77	2.3	.961	2.0

significantly greater than the difference between men and women from neighborhoods not reported as dry? The variance of a difference between two independent measures is the same as the variance of the sum; hence we may take

$$t = \frac{.66 - .22}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{19} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{42} + \frac{1}{46} \right)}} = 0.8$$

which cannot be interpreted as significant.

This procedure is quite capable of extension. The difference between mean scores of males whose fathers were not reported as vot-

ing dry and of males whose fathers were reported as voting dry, all coming from "dry" neighborhoods, was 1.23. The corresponding difference for females was 1.47. The sum, 2.70, is evidently greater than the sum, 1.87, of the two sets of differences found in groups from neighborhoods not reported as dry. We ask the question: Holding sex constant, is the differential effect of father's vote (or of whatever father's vote is an index) greater among students from neighborhoods reported as dry than among students from other neighborhoods? Testing, we find

$$t = \frac{2.70 - 1.87}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 \left( \frac{1}{28} + \frac{1}{37} + \frac{1}{22} + \frac{1}{20} + \frac{1}{19} + \frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{42} + \frac{1}{46} \right)}} = 1.1,$$

which is not significant. The computation is not heavy, for the same denominator is used as in the second paragraph preceding.

The only limit to the full extension of the method seems to be the difficulty of getting enough cases in some of the groups, even if the original number of cases is large. If some of the cells are sparsely populated or empty, it is quite possible to use the method in analyzing those portions of the data where the factors are adequately represented. As a practical matter it seems hardly desirable to analyze data in a cell containing less than about a dozen cases.

One cannot too strongly emphasize the importance of holding constant relevant factors. This seems almost too obvious to repeat, but is exceedingly important if statistical studies in sociology are to have validity. Since it is hard to keep several factors in mind at the same time, it would seem desirable to lay out a project carefully in such a way that as many factors as possible are controlled in advance, leaving not more than three or four to be disentangled in the eventual statistical treatment. The practical obstacle to attaining this ideal, apart from absence of data, is the often justifiable feeling that the events studied are shifting so fast in time that it is hardly worth while to make a meticulously accurate study. In that case, we should be conscious of the limitations of the study in reporting the results. The limitations of the study reported above are so numerous, due to subjective definition of categories and due to neglect of other factors which may or may not be significant, that the writer

would hesitate to publish the findings if he did not feel that sociologists should be better acquainted with the new tools now available for analyzing data of this type.

As previously indicated, the main purpose of the original study for which the data here used were collected was to compare two methods of studying attitudes. The correlation between the test scores and the case-history ratings of the 238 students examined was .82 and therefore high enough to indicate that whatever the two methods were getting at, they were getting at much the same thing.

TABLE IV

CASE-HISTORY RATINGS ON ATTITUDES TOWARD PROHIBITION OF 238 STUDENTS

		FEMALES		MALES	
		Father's Vote Re- ported Dry	Father's Vote Not Reported Dry	Father's Vote Re- ported Dry	Father's Vote Not Reported Dry
Neighborhood reported dry.....	$n_s$ $\bar{x}_s$ $S(x - \bar{x}_s)^2$	37 - .682 20.34	24 + .100 16.81	28 - .479 21.23	19 - .300 8.87
Neighborhood not report- ed dry.....	$n_s$ $\bar{x}_s$ $S(x - \bar{x}_s)^2$	20 - .117 15.57	46 + .191 34.34	22 + .091 17.28	42 + .541 39.11

A more stringent comparison of the two methods than the mere computation of the correlation would be to see whether, if case history ratings were substituted for test scores in the study of the relationship between attitudes toward prohibition, sex, father's vote, and neighborhood, different conclusions would be reached than were reached in using test scores.<sup>6</sup>

Table IV gives the basic data for case-history ratings analogous to the data in Table I. The rating on a particular case history was the average of the standard scores of four judges, and, of course, the scale of measurement is entirely different from that of the test scores. Ideally, the values of  $t$ , however, should be so close to the cor-

<sup>6</sup> The same classification as to background factors was used as in studying test scores. No attempt was made to form a new classification from data in the case histories themselves.

responding values of  $t$  found by using the test scores, that we would be forced to make the same interpretation of the significance of the difference between any two factors. The values of  $t$  found from the case history ratings are given in the last columns of Tables II and III. In only one of the eighteen comparisons is there any discrepancy large enough to affect the interpretation; it is in the second entry in Table II. Here  $t$  based on the test scores is 2.2;  $t$  based on the case history ratings is 1.3. The former is significant; the latter small enough to be due possibly to chance. It would be hard to conceive of a more stringent comparison of the two methods than these. The result would seem to be adequate confirmation of the conclusions published by the writer previously.<sup>7</sup>

It will be remembered that sex and the two background factors studied accounted for about 23 per cent of the variance in test scores. The sums of the squares of the deviations of case-history ratings from the general mean was 213.36;<sup>8</sup> the sum of the squares of

<sup>7</sup> Reference given in n. 2.

<sup>8</sup> Given the sums of the squares of the deviations from the general mean, we can find directly the average intercorrelation of the four judges' ratings of the case histories, without troubling to compute the six individual correlation coefficients. This can be a considerable time-saver. The procedure and proof are so simple that they may have been published before, though without coming to the writer's attention. Since a given case-history rating, the average of standard scores assigned by  $k$  judges, is

$$z = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(x - \bar{x}_i)}{\sigma_i},$$

the sum of the squares of the  $n$  deviations from the general mean of zero is

$$S_z^2 = \frac{1}{k^2} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2} \dots + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{ki} - \bar{x}_k)^2}{\sigma_k^2} \dots + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{ki} - \bar{x}_k)^2}{\sigma_k^2} + P \right]$$

where  $P$  = the sum of the  $\frac{k(k-1)}{2}$  product terms.

Since

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{ki} - \bar{x}_k)^2}{\sigma_k^2} = n,$$

we have

$$S_z^2 = \frac{1}{k^2} (n k + P),$$

the deviations from the group means was 173.53, indicating that sex and the two background factors studied accounted for about 19 per cent of the variance in the case-history ratings. The correlation between test scores and case history ratings expressed as deviations from the means of the eight groups was .77. This may be interpreted as a partial correlation, indicating the agreement between the two methods with sex and the two background factors held constant. It is, of course, a more exacting comparison than that represented by a total coefficient of .82; it is based on more nearly homogeneous data, and the more homogeneous the data the less the likelihood of high agreement between the two methods of attitude study. Since one can give a test quickly and cheaply to hundreds—not to say thousands—of subjects, the test has an undoubted advantage in the analysis of a mass of data, particularly when the differential effects of a number of "background factors" are to be dissected and studied. The case-history method is not suitable—nor is it of course intended—for the use to which it was necessarily put in this study. Its value is chiefly as an evoker of new ideas, a check on the definition of categories, a tentative interpreter of relationships found statistically, and a basis for impressionistic studies of "patterns" or sequences of behavior.

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giving

$$P = k(kSz^2 - n).$$

Any product term (with  $i > 1$ ), such as

$$2 \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_{(i-1)t} - \bar{x}_{i-1})(x_{it} - \bar{x}_i)}{\sigma_{i-1} \sigma_i} = 2nr(i-1)i$$

whence  $P = 2nSr$ ; and  $\frac{2Sr}{k(k-1)}$ , the average intercorrelation of the judges' ratings,

$$= \frac{P}{nk(k-1)} = \frac{1}{k-1} \left( \frac{kSz^2}{n} - 1 \right).$$

In the present example,  $k=4$ ,  $n=238$ ,  $Sz^2=213.36$ , whence the average intercorrelation, measuring the agreement of judges' ratings of case histories, is .86, which yields an estimated reliability (using the Spearman-Brown formula), of .96. Cf. n. 2.

## SUMMARY

1. It is important to test the significance of the difference between means in sub-classes.

2. New and simple procedures are illustrated for (a) testing the significance of the *sums* of differences between average scores of, say, men and women, thus holding constant other factors; and for (b) testing the significance of the *differences* between differences, holding constant other factors.

3. Application of these procedures to test scores of attitudes toward prohibition of 238 students at the University of Chicago shows that, taken as a whole, the men were wetter than the women; students whose fathers were not reported as voting dry were wetter than students whose fathers were reported as voting dry; and students from neighborhoods not reported as dry were wetter than students from neighborhoods reported as dry; in each case holding the other two factors constant.

4. Application of the same procedures to case-history ratings on attitudes toward prohibition of these 238 students led to sufficiently identical conclusions to indicate that as far as results were concerned, it made little difference which of the two methods (test or case history) was used. If, as there is reason for believing, the case histories revealed attitudes, the present paper may be regarded as providing additional verification of the validity of Thurstone's methods of measuring attitudes by the use of a test.



## THE DISTRIBUTION OF SUCCESS IN MARRIAGE

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### ABSTRACT

A study was made of 252 married individuals representing 146 marriages. Of these, 31 were clinical cases. The sample was younger and more highly educated than the general population, with smaller families and better economic status than average. The distribution of marital satisfaction showed a very marked negative skew. Three important points in the curve were the average, the indifference point (score of 50), and the success-failure point (66 for women, 68 for men). Brief clinical summaries are presented to give qualitative insight into the meaning of various scores.

In another paper<sup>1</sup> the present writer has described and discussed an instrument for the measurement of success in marriage. In the course of testing this instrument it was tried out on 252 individuals (115 men and 137 women) representing 146 marriages. These were urban marriages coming from St. Louis, Seattle, and Los Angeles. Those from Los Angeles were from Dr. Paul Popenoe's Institute of Family Relations and, together with 6 others, constitute what will be designated the "clinical cases." In the present paper the results secured from this sample will be set forth and analyzed.

Since all the findings are relative to this sample, let us analyze it with respect to a few factors and compare it with the population at large. First of all, the present sample is younger than the population at large.<sup>2</sup> It is probably somewhat above the average in economic status, considering the present level of incomes, but perhaps not markedly so.<sup>3</sup> It has fewer children than the population of St. Louis.<sup>4</sup> And, finally, it is an extremely highly educated group.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> "An Instrument for the Measurement of Success in Marriage," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXVII (May, 1933), 94-106.

<sup>2</sup> The details of computation must be omitted for lack of space. The general method was to compare the present sample with the 1930 census figures for St. Louis. The present sample has 16.5 per cent more men in the twenty-five to thirty-four age interval than the married population of St. Louis and correspondingly fewer in the older age intervals.

<sup>3</sup> The modal income group is \$1,500 to \$1,900. The arithmetic mean lies in the \$3,000 to \$3,400 interval.

<sup>4</sup> The present sample contained 5 and 10.5 per cent more one- and two-children families, respectively, than did the population at large, and correspondingly fewer three- and four-or-more-children families.

<sup>5</sup> Out of 203 cases where data were available, 157, or about 72.4 per cent, had had more than high-school education, and many of them advanced postgraduate work. This

In general make-up the present sample, so far as the women are concerned, coincides very closely with the sample in Dr. Davis' study.<sup>6</sup> Indeed, it is highly probable that all studies of this nature select the same group, that is, an exceptionally intelligent, economically comfortable, well-educated one. Hamilton's<sup>7</sup> and Dickinson's<sup>8</sup> groups seem to have been drawn from very much the same social level.

If the object of the present study had been to construct norms, the sample would have been quite unsuitable. But the main object was to try out the instrument and for this purpose the biased nature of the sample was no drawback.<sup>9</sup>

With this brief background as to the nature of the sample, we may turn to a consideration of the actual results obtained.<sup>10</sup> Figure 1 gives the distribution of scores of the 252 individuals according to the

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is due to two factors: first, the instrument was distributed largely through academic channels; and, second, it automatically selected an intelligent group. In its present form the instrument was much too difficult for people of average intelligence. The average I.Q. of the present sample would probably be something around 120.

<sup>6</sup> Katharine Bement Davis, *Factors in the Sex Life of Twenty-two Hundred Women* (New York, 1929). The median age in the Davis group was 37; in the present one, 35. The modal age in the Davis sample was 30; in the present one, 32. Ninety per cent of the Davis group had had more than high-school education; 61.2 per cent of the present sample.

<sup>7</sup> G. V. Hamilton, *A Research in Marriage* (New York, 1929). His subjects were "serious-minded, more or less importantly occupied, well above the average as to intelligence and cultural attainment" (p. vi).

<sup>8</sup> Robert Latou Dickinson, "Medical Analysis of a Thousand Marriages," reprinted from the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, XCVII (August 22, 1931), 529-35. "The woman under observation is of the American cultural type. She is urban, of good family background and education, a homemaker with a child or two, married to a professional man of moderate income. The social and economic milieu represented averages well above the middle line of humanity in large cities. The inclusion of the few poor is balanced by the inclusion of the few very wealthy, and the few women of limited schooling are balanced by those having the degree of doctor of philosophy" (p. 1).

<sup>9</sup> Blanket or universal norms for success in marriage will probably never be practicable, anyway. We will probably need different norms for different age groups, possibly for different intelligence or educational groups; not unlikely we will need urban and rural, Negro and white, companionate and family-marriage norms, etc. This, however, is a problem for the future.

<sup>10</sup> For the method of scoring and the nature of the unit along the base line see the article by the present author already referred to (*loc. cit.*).

exclusive method of scoring.<sup>11</sup> It will be noted that there is an incipient submodal group near the lower end of the distribution, name-

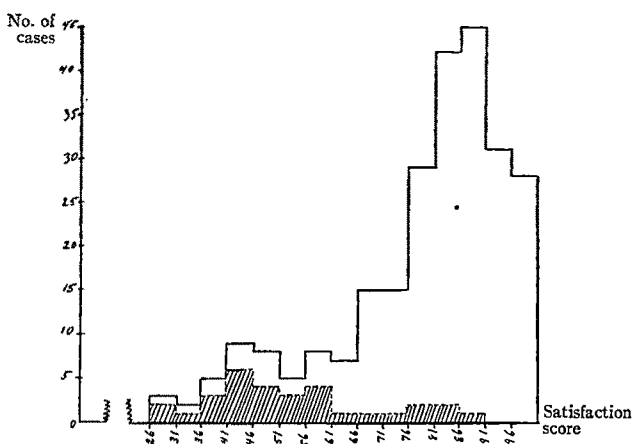


FIG. 1.—Distribution of marital satisfaction of 137 women and 115 men. (Shaded area indicates distribution of marital satisfaction for the 31 clinical cases.)

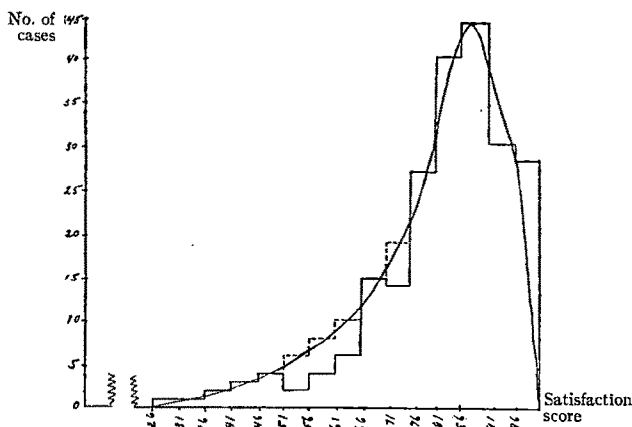


FIG. 2.—Distribution of marital satisfaction of 221 men and women, excluding clinical cases. (The dotted lines indicate marginal cases which were probably selected out.)

ly, between 41 and 51. This interesting excrescence represents the clinical group. It is made up of 25 individuals (12 couples and 1 in-

<sup>11</sup> For the meaning of this term see the article cited in the preceding footnote.

dividual man) secured through the courtesy of Dr. Popenoe, 4 divorcées (one a Negress), 1 woman separated from her husband, and 1 maladjusted man secured through a social worker, Mr. Duckworth, of St. Louis. The distribution of these 31 clinical cases is shown by the shaded area in Figure 1. Figure 2 shows the distribution when this clinical group is excluded and represents, therefore, a

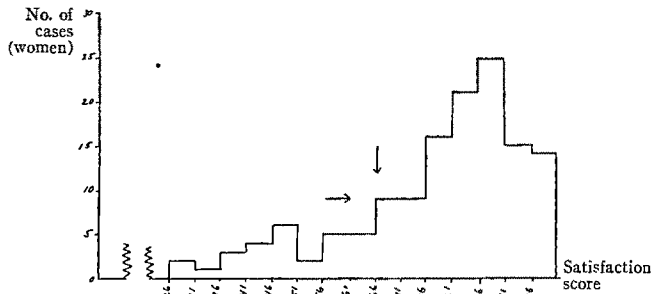


FIG. 3.—Distribution of marital satisfaction of 137 women. (Horizontal arrow indicates "success-failure point" if clinical cases are included; vertical arrow indicates "success-failure point" if clinical cases are excluded.)

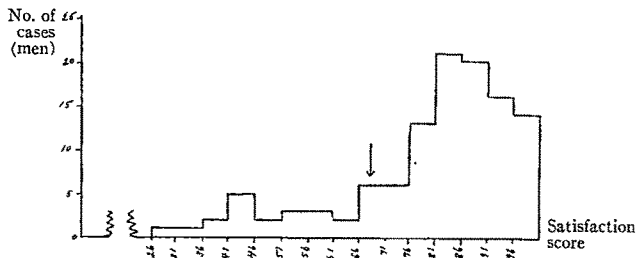


FIG. 4.—Distribution of marital satisfaction of 115 men. (Arrow indicates "success-failure point," excluding clinical cases.)

more nearly representative sample. The mean score of the total group of 252 individuals was 78.8; of the clinical group, 52.6; of the non-clinical group, 81.0. The respective medians were 83.0, 49.8, and 83.9; and the approximate modes 91.4, about 45, and 90.0. The standard deviations of the three groups were 16.6, 15.8, and 14.3. The approximate skewness of the total group was  $-.759$ , of the clinical group,  $+.525$ , and of the non-clinical,  $-.643$ .<sup>12</sup> It will readily

<sup>12</sup> After these computations had been made, four clinical cases came in with the following scores: 55 (woman), 36 (woman), 88 (man), 74 (man).

be seen that the instrument was rather sensitively discriminating with respect to the clinical group as compared with the total group or with the non-clinical group—a fact which indicates a very satisfactory degree of validity.

Using the regression equation of the wives' scores on the husbands' and vice versa,<sup>13</sup> scores were computed for the 40 individuals for whom no schedules were turned in. The graph of the distribution when they were included—it must be omitted for lack of space—is essentially the same as Figure 1, with irregularities smoothed due to increased numbers. It should be remembered, however, that about 13 of these computed scores were at least 10 points off<sup>14</sup> and in so small a number there is no assurance that these errors would cancel one another. When the clinical cases are excluded, while still including the computed ones, the results are much the same as in Figure 2.

The bare presentation of scores has little significance, however, until we know what a particular score means. Fortunately we have brief summaries of the marital status of the Popenoe clinical cases and these are of great value in giving qualitative content to the scores. Thus, for example, a marriage which the instrument rates 81 is that of

a professional man and his wife; however, they came [to the Institute] primarily because of a sexual maladjustment rather than a general family disintegration, so they would rate fairly high on a scale of 100—probably at least 85.

Another case, rated by the scale at 52, is described as follows:

Here are the scales of a couple of our clients, for whom we think we have done a good deal, as they seem now to be pretty well straightened out. The woman was very close to a psychopath, and because of emotional inhibitions carried over from childhood, belief that coitus should be only for procreation, etc., they were near to a break. She is better educated than he. . . . He is much dominated by his mother—that has been one of the main factors in their trouble. When they came in here, I should not have rated their marriage above 35 or 40.

Again, a case rated 58 by the instrument is from

. . . an interesting and very co-operative pair. . . . Her complaint is that he can never hold a job; they are always in financial difficulties; she thinks he is using ill health dating from army life as an alibi in a good many cases. He com-

<sup>13</sup> Wife's score:  $X = 16.9 + .78Y$ . Husband's score:  $Y = 26.1 + 69X$ .

<sup>14</sup> Standard error of estimate 10.2 and 10.4 for men and women, respectively.

plains that, because of the general friction between them, he can not work successfully. There is pretty complete sexual maladjustment, which he blames largely for their friction; she is rather inclined to put the responsibility on his personality, dating as she believes from unhappy childhood experiences. . . . Each gives the other credit for many good qualities; they seem to be co-operating pretty well in handling two children . . . ; they do not talk of separating . . . ; they seem sincerely to want to straighten out their troubles. I should rate them at least 60.

Another case, rated by the instrument 49,

. . . is one of the most interesting cases we have had lately—two school teachers with a large disparity in age and three months of marriage during which they have been separated part of the time and quarreling the rest. I doubt if they will make a go of it. Both are highly neurotic. I should hesitate to grade this marriage higher than 30.

The following case was rated 36 by the instrument. It is a marriage . . . about as unsuccessful as a marriage could be and still exist. I shouldn't grade it as more than 25 or 30. While they have been married 11 years, the man says he regretted the marriage before it was even performed; knew he oughtn't to marry this woman, but went ahead to avoid disappointing her; and every night has hated to go home. He is now openly interested in some other woman. Unquestionably the wife has been trying to live with, although she is now trying to make a desperate effort to reform and hold him. He is staying with her on account of the child.

The instrument rated the next case 34. They are

. . . highly intelligent professional people who have met with business reverses and also marital discord, sufficient to make the wife run away and leave her husband. He finally followed her out here, and we have now brought about a reconciliation between them. There was a complete sexual maladjustment which apparently had endured throughout their 21 years of married life, and widespread differences of temperament, point of view, recreational tastes, and the like. I should not rate the . . . marriage higher than 35; but they are people of superior ability and if they really try they may now make a go of it.

A case rated 75 by the instrument is described by Popenoe as follows:

The husband is a college professor, the wife has completed most of her work for the doctorate; they have a baby 6 months old; their maladjustment is primarily sexual, but with this as a start, a serious antagonism has grown up which will very likely end in a divorce. Each speaks well of the other, on the whole, and if it were not for the sexual difficulty they would get along satisfactorily. On this basis I should think the success of the marriage ought to be rated as high as 65 or 70.

Of another marriage Dr. Popenoe says:

They are both somewhat neurotic, getting along fairly well but Mrs. X complains her husband does not understand her, etc. I should think they ought to rate 65 or 70.

The instrument rated the foregoing marriage 71, the woman ranking her husband about 30 points lower than he ranked her. Finally, . . . a couple of young college people. The wife, who is an extremely dominating and determined type of person, is determined to make a success of the marriage; the husband, who is a weak fellow who has always evaded responsibilities, is trying to slide out from under. . . . I should place their marriage somewhere around 40.

The instrument agreed pretty well, rating the marriage at 48.

So much for the clinical cases. But before leaving the subject of the meaning of the scores, let us examine one more case, this time all the more valuable because it illustrates what a particular score means to the person involved rather than to an outside observer, as in the Popenoe cases. One woman who showed an average degree of satisfaction with her husband was good enough to include the following statement with her returned schedule:

I am glad that my husband is:—

Kind and sympathetic very often.

Generous.

Fond of beauty.

Loves the outdoors.

Social-minded.

Conscientiously tries to do his best for family welfare.

I wish that he would not:—

Swear.

Flare into anger on such slight provocation.

Be so unconscious of my desire for occasional frivolity.

Ignore the realization that to be of the family he must participate in its struggles and its fun.

Shun social and casual intercourse with friends and acquaintances.

Glad that he does:—

He does not do anything I [dis?]like.

Wish that he would:—

Take more interest in his home and family and take us out more often.

Talk to us when he comes home.

Be more courteous.

Be less restless.

Now that we have more insight into the qualitative meaning of the different scores in specific cases, let us see what various points on the distribution mean in terms of the group as a whole. First, as in the case of true-false tests, 50 represents a chance score or, in the present case, what we might call the "indifference point," that is, where favorable and unfavorable responses cancel one another. Theoretically we might think of this point as the zero base if we so chose, and consider any score under 50 as a negative score.

A more important point, however, is one that might be called the "success-failure point." Dr. Davis, it will be recalled, found among her women that 87 per cent were unequivocally happy. This means, of course, that 13 per cent were not. Since the women in the present sample are for all intents and purposes the same as those in her sample, it will be quite legitimate to take the thirteenth percentile as the success-failure point. Let us therefore examine the distribution of scores of the women and locate the thirteenth percentile. Figure 3 gives the distribution of the women's scores. The horizontal arrow shows approximately where the thirteenth percentile falls, namely, at 61. That is, if we include the clinical cases, 61 is the score which marks the successful from the unsuccessful marriages, so far as the women are concerned. If we exclude the clinical cases, and logically this should be done since they were secured by special effort and would probably not have appeared in a random sample, the success-failure point is raised to 66, as indicated by the vertical arrow. This means that any score above 66 (or 61 if one includes the clinical cases) may be interpreted to mean a successful marriage, so far as women are concerned, and any under these figures as an unsuccessful one.

Dickinson, however, found that out of 770 women living with their husbands only 365, or 47.4 per cent, "made no complaint of any kind"<sup>15</sup> about their marriage, while 375, or 48.7 per cent, did complain and "were willing to discuss with the doctor what was wrong." If we use these figures instead of the Davis figures, and exclude clinical cases, as Dickinson does, the success-failure point lies approximately at the median, that is, in the eighties. This is a very wide spread as compared with the Davis group. Which figure should we

<sup>15</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 6.



accept as valid? Is the proper percentage of dissatisfied married women 13 or almost 49? Let us examine the matter more closely. Dickinson's figures deal specifically with sexual maladjustment, and it is quite possible that many of his sexually maladjusted women were in other respects satisfied with their marriages as, indeed, Popenoe intimates to be the case with one of his clients. In actual fact, 275 of Dickinson's women were in some degree pathological sexually (100 were diagnosed as frigid, 175 as having dyspareunia), so that their dissatisfaction with their sexual adjustment must be charged up not against marriage but against their own sexual peculiarities. This leaves 100 normal women, or 13 per cent of the 770 "who were maladjusted, usually with strongly worded grievance toward the husband or marriage."<sup>16</sup> This figure, 13 per cent, is identical with the Davis figure, and thus the discrepancy disappears.<sup>17</sup> The Hamilton group gave 75 per cent who if not actually satisfied with their own marriage were at least not so dissatisfied as to feel that they would not marry if they were not married. This group, however, was overloaded with clinical cases—12 of the hundred women and 9 of the hundred men being divorced or separated—so that comparison with normal groups is precluded.

Do the same figures apply to men as to women? That is, can we as-

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 9.

<sup>17</sup> The problem might be approached from a different angle. Ogburn states ("The Changing Family with Regard to the Child," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CLI, [September, 1930], 23) that one out of seventeen married couples in one large city in 1920 were living apart. He does not specify whether or not this number includes marriages broken by death, but let us assume that it does. This means that if one took a large number of random samples of married women, 136 in each sample, and recorded the number of women whose marriages were broken, the average number of such women would be 8 ( $1/17 \times 136$ ). The present sample is  $8/5$  of a standard deviation off from this average. Now out of the remaining 16 married women, 2, or about  $1/8$ , are dissatisfied with their marriage, if the Davis and Dickinson figures are correct. This means that out of the remaining 130 women of the present sample, if it is normal, about 16 should be dissatisfied ( $1/8 \times 130$ ). But if we assume that it is just as far from normal in this respect as in the case of completely broken marriages—namely,  $8/5$  of a standard deviation—then we should expect only 12 dissatisfied women. This would place the satisfaction-dissatisfaction or success-failure point very close to the indifference point, or 50. This approach does not depend on the similarity of the present sample to the Davis sample. Whether 50 or 66 should be taken as the success-failure point is a question which can be settled only when more data are available for its solution.

sume that 13 per cent is the normal percentage of dissatisfied married men? My original assumption was that in the absence of any specific studies dealing with men—Hamilton's study being precluded, as already indicated—we could take the figures which applied to women and apply them to men also. This assumption, however, was challenged by one of the graduate students at Washington University who was of the opinion that the percentage of dissatisfied married men was larger than that of married women. The original assumption was therefore abandoned and a more rigorous type of reasoning substituted. The success-failure point for women (66) is 0.7 of a standard deviation below their mean. The corresponding point on the men's distribution is 68, and there are 18 per cent of the cases below this point (see Fig. 4). Thus although men tend to rate their wives higher than the wives rate them<sup>18</sup>—whether due to greater generosity, chivalry, or fear of reprisals we cannot say—so that their success-failure point is somewhat higher than the women's, yet a larger number, relatively, are below this point, namely, 18 per cent as compared with 13 per cent for the women.

We have now in addition to the arithmetic mean and the indifference point the success-failure point, and it is interesting to note how nearly halfway between the first two the latter falls. This interesting fact will be referred to again later.

Now that we are fairly well acquainted with the meaning of various points on the scale with reference to both specific cases and the group as a whole, we are in a position to tackle the next problem, which is, namely, to account for the general shape of the distribution. Can we say that the type of curve shown here represents the actual or normal distribution of marital satisfaction in the general population? Are there logical and psychological reasons for the marked negative skew? If so, what are they? Is the present distribution due to peculiarities of the sample studied? If so, can these be analyzed out and discounted? These questions will be discussed in the second part of this paper which will appear in a future issue of this *Journal*.

<sup>18</sup> The arithmetic mean for the women was 77.9; for the men, 79.7. The respective medians were 82.4 and 84.1. The standard deviations were the same, namely, 17.0. Approximate skewness of the women's distribution,  $-.794$ ; of the men's,  $-.777$ .

# DIFFICULTIES OF STATISTICAL INTERPRETATION OF CASE RECORDS OF DELINQUENCY AND CRIME

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## ABSTRACT

The scientific value of case records has been discredited on the ground that the paucity of records prevents their reliable statistical use. Moreover, the statistical units extracted from the records have no meaning apart from their context. As illustrations of individual life-patterns and situations they have value as contributions to an understanding of life. If a given set of cases were identical in their component elements, a complete, accurate description of one would give as much as would statistical generalizations concerning the total number. In a number of cases, major aspects, likenesses, and differences might be distilled from a mass of irrelevant detail and the conclusions reduced to a statistical basis. But a careful scrutiny of records would be necessary to reveal qualitative as well as quantitative differences and make prediction valid.

The social case history is an attempt at character analysis through the medium of language, the facts ascertained being subsumed under categories that are representative of the different and relevant phases of the life of the subject. To be sure, the "case" may be a family rather than an individual, though a good family case record will indicate the respective rôles of the individual members; and, conversely, an adequate individual case record must of necessity reveal much of family backgrounds.

To put the matter in another way, we may say that the case history aims at a revelation of the organic and socially conditioned traits of the individual. The materials may be arranged in chronological, narrative form; or a logical order may be followed in which the data are organized under various significant headings. Usually, a combination of methods is found desirable: narrative gives the sense of the dynamic continuity of life, while the logical arrangement of materials helps to orient their scientific relevancy. What traits are organic, and what socially conditioned or acquired; or, again, what can be regarded as an inextricable blend of the two can be determined only from the facts as presented, either directly or through inference. Any attempt to attribute mathematical proportions to the relative influences of heredity and environment covers futility with the mantle of science. All that is inherited is expressed through

or conditioned by the given social environment. Intelligence, temperament, and other personality traits, though their roots be grounded in heredity mechanisms, all are modified in their functioning by the life-experience of the individual. This has been demonstrated even with identical twins who have been subjected to different environments (cf. Professor H. S. Jennings, *The Biological Basis of Human Nature*, pp. 166-69).

Of course, few case records are complete enough to yield a scientific demonstration of the respective rôles of heredity and environment in the life of the individual, even if it were theoretically possible to differentiate between them with precision. However, the ideal of the case record is, as we have stated: to present a sequential narrative of the significant experiences and contacts of the individual, setting them against the background of his apparently hereditary tendencies, his family status and traditions, his ecological relationships, and the culture of the age in which he lives. There are imbedded in all this the definite personal facts relative to age, race, nationality, mental and physical condition, occupation, family relationships, and so on. Whatever be the situation or type of maladjustment involved in the case study, it is assumed that the foregoing considerations will yield a valid basis for interpretation.

However, in recent years there has been much discussion of the alleged scientific value of the case record. Case recording differs from laboratory science where the subject or materials are placed under controlled experimentation. Nevertheless, in the study of animal life it is common practice to supplement laboratory work with field observation. The case record may then be said to be analogous to the accounts of animal and bird life made by naturalists, with the important qualification that in the latter case observation and notations are made during the action of the subject; while in case recording events and behavior reactions are noted sometime after their occurrence.<sup>1</sup> So-called experimental sociology aims to

<sup>1</sup> An exception to this general statement would be the observations of young children now being conducted in nursery schools. Also, a graduate student in the University of Michigan, who is engaged in making case records in the welfare department of a Michigan penal institution, reports that he gets better clues to the personalities of the men by observing their habits and general behavior responses in the institution than by the general background data which he has secured, though he does not deny the great importance of the latter.

make the record of human situations precisely analogous to the recorded observations of animal behavior; but to me the difficulty of such an attempt lies in the fact that it is well-nigh impossible to create, artificially, significant, human, social situations. We are, therefore, constrained to study and record them from such sources as are available after the events have occurred. However, if the account be accurate and objective, there seems to be no good reason why it should not be regarded as a legitimate means of a truly scientific study of human behavior.

At this point one meets the view that the scientific value of the case record depends upon whether or not it affords units of measurement that can be drawn, so to speak, like a nut from its shell, and made the basis of statistical compilation and comparison. To illustrate: Suppose we have a hundred good case records of juvenile delinquents. Presumably, these records would have data relative to the following points: age, sex, nativity, race, intelligence quotient, whether or not the family is normally constituted or broken, number of persons per dwelling for each family, occupations of parents, and so on for a large number of determinable facts. The findings on these points can be reduced to a percentage basis, and hypotheses made relative to the importance of the different factors. If, furthermore, similar data are secured relative to a hundred non-delinquent children, and also reduced to a percentage basis, from a comparison of the results in the two cases it may appear what are the distinguishing characteristics of the delinquent group. We may conclude, for example, that delinquent children have lower intelligence quotients, are more frequently from broken homes, are more often of foreign parentage, and so on, than non-delinquent children. Statistically speaking, we say that delinquency is highly correlated with these factors. Whenever, then, we find the combination of low I.Q., broken homes, and foreign parentage, we may suspect juvenile delinquency. The more our statistical methods are perfected, and the more correlating factors we can isolate and identify, the more our suspicions may be justified. The ideal hope of the statistician would be to find the completely representative combination of factors from which juvenile delinquency could always be predicted. At such a

point, if it could be reached, social science would attain to the precision and universality of physical science.

But here we meet first with certain difficulties in the application of our statistical methods. Whereas statistical predictability depends upon the existence of a very large number of cases from which the supposedly identical units may be derived, the actual number of good records is relatively small. This exposes no defects in statistical procedures, as such, though it does reduce their value in this particular field. If we are to assume that the scientific value of case records lies only in their possibilities for statistical use, then the paucity of good records prevents not only a reliable statistical application, but also any attribution to them of scientific merit.

However, there is a more fundamental difficulty involved in the statistical use of case records, even if good ones were available in large numbers. The statistical units that are extracted from the record are like the lines of a play, or the notes of a musical composition—they have no meaning apart from their context. The separate facts in a complex delinquency situation must be seen in relation to one another, and examined as a unique organic whole in each particular case. This is so because no two human personalities, nor any two situations, are quite the same. There may be aspects of identity, and these are amenable to statistical treatment. But these identities, extracted from their setting, do not reveal the differences that obtain between cases when regarded as organic wholes. Individual persons are unique, as well as similar; and from this it follows that even where environments are apparently the same, the total life-situations for two individuals can never be quite the same. From similar environments no two individuals select and assimilate the same elements. Furthermore, if we consider that most important part of the environment, which involves the attitudes of other persons, and which is of the greatest influence in molding personality, it can even be said that no two persons can have precisely the same environment, due to the obvious as well as subtle differences in attitudes that prevail between people who are closely associated.

The upshot of all this is that the case record has value as a more or less unique segment of life independently of any statistical inductions that may be made from a large number of cases. The individ-

ual case may belie the statistical expectations concerning it. Reverting to our hypothetical combination of factors, not all moron children of foreign extraction, living in broken homes, are delinquent, even if a majority of them might be found to be so. Reasons for such exceptions can be discovered, if at all, only by an examination of the individual cases; and it is conceivable that in one hundred variants from the expected correlations (delinquency = foreign heritage, low mentality, broken homes) one hundred different reasons may be necessary to explain them. The hope of discovering the precise set of multiple correlations that will have universal validity in explaining delinquency is illusory. On the other hand, if from our study of case records we are not seeking universally applicable formulae, but rather illustrations of individual life-patterns and life-situations, we can value them for what they are, as a contribution to our understanding of life. If it be said that such understanding is not scientific, because lacking in quantitative significance, a dilemma arises, in that, where we do get the quantitative bearings of a large number of cases, we are likely to miss the individual variants. One may even question the dictum that all data must have quantitative significance before they may be regarded as scientific. To put the matter in another light, one may say that, if a given case, as an organic whole, is unique, then, obviously, no statistical comparison is possible. If, on the other hand, a given set of cases were identical in their component elements, then a complete, accurate description of one would give all that we could get from statistical generalizations concerning the total number of cases. This whole question comes down to our understanding of the method and meaning of science as applied to human life-situations. If this be an acceptable statement of the outcome of our discussion, we may hope that it has served to orient divergent points of view.

It remains to inquire as to what, precisely, we may legitimately expect from the statistical use of case records. Applying the question to the study of delinquency, we may say that records of delinquent behavior may be classified into generalized patterns which, for the purpose of articulating and emphasizing the main outlines, would ignore individual variations with respect to the omitted details. Comparisons could then be made between the cases, regarding their

major aspects, likenesses and differences, and the conclusions reduced to a statistical basis. Such a procedure would be like comparing the bony skeletons of the human species; but, like the latter, would fall short of giving a picture of human life-situations.

To illustrate the matter, we may suggest various case-record patterns. One hypothetical pattern has already been suggested, viz., low mentality, foreign heritage, and broken homes. A large number of others are deducible from such a work as the Gluecks' *500 Criminal Careers*, such as bad use of leisure, poor work record, and failure to meet family obligations; or, bad marital relationships, early separation from parental home, and previous criminal record; or any combination of these and other significant factors. Such factors, taken singly or in combination, may be regarded as behavior patterns, which may be, so to speak, distilled out of a mass of less relevant detail in the cases. As the Gluecks discovered, the more of them present in a given case, the less likely would such a one be a good parole risk assuming a given state of intelligence and efficiency in parole supervision. Prediction in such a case would certainly lack the validity of physical science, where antecedent factors were given; yet it would be reliable enough as a guide for discriminating administrators of parole. However, it is most likely that a given unfavorable pattern would not always result in continued crime; and one might suppose that only a careful scrutiny of the records themselves—both those which had supported the prediction, and those which had not—would reveal the qualitative as well as the quantitative differences that make prediction on the basis of the patterns alone something less than universally valid.

To sum up this discussion, we may say that it has attempted to set forth the relationships, and the respective merits, of the case history and statistical generalizations in the study of delinquency and crime. Whatever we conclude about the matter, it is certain that specialists in both methods will continue their particular types of inquiry—with a degree of harmony, it is to be hoped, that will be mutually corrective and stimulating.



## A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF RURAL DEPOPULATION IN A SINGLE TOWNSHIP: 1900-1930<sup>1</sup>

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### ABSTRACT

Population movements in a rural township in South Carolina were studied by comparing the years 1900 and 1930. Classification of the population into upper, middle, and lower classes indicates that the township has sustained a severe depletion in its upper class, largely due to migration to cities. There has been a 15 per cent increase in the middle class. The heaviest losses have been incurred by the lower class, which has been attracted mainly to employment in adjacent textile mills. The middle class, in largest proportions, has remained on the farm. From a vigorous middle class, under conditions of a profitable agriculture, depletions in the ranks of the upper class may be partly repaired.

It is a matter of vital social significance whether or not the marked cityward migration of recent decades is impoverishing in quality the residual rural population. In order to answer this question it is necessary to develop new techniques in population studies as they affect country people. This is the purpose of the investigation reported in the following pages.

An intensive study was made of a single township in the Piedmont Plateau of Southeastern United States, a section in which a marked industrial development has occurred during the last three decades and more. Santuc Township, approximately 81 square miles in area, is territorially the largest of the eight townships in Union County, South Carolina. The area is entirely rural, with Santuc, an unincorporated crossroads hamlet of scarcely a dozen houses, constituting the nucleus. The economic interests are mainly those of a predominantly cotton-growing agricultural community of the South. The only significant industrial plant within its boundaries is the electric power plant developed a number of years ago at Neal's Shoals on Broad River. Within a radius of twenty-five miles of the village of Santuc, however, eleven textile (cotton mills and knitting mills) plants have sprung up in recent years, influencing population change to a considerable degree.

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before Section K of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Atlantic City, N.J., December 27, 1932. The study was made possible through the co-operation of the South Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station.

The population in 1900 was 2,844, while in 1930 there were only 1,893, a decrease of 33.4 per cent. The whites in the area in 1900 totaled 695, and had declined to 571 in 1930, a diminution of approximately 18 per cent. Negroes preponderate in the township, consisting of 2,149, or 75.6 per cent in 1900; and 1,322, or 69.8 per cent in 1930. Thus, during the last three census decades, a sharp decline of 38.5 per cent has been incurred among the Negroes, due to migration toward urban centers in the North and elsewhere, as well as doubtless to a decreased birth-rate and other related factors.

A succinct picture of the culture pattern of the area may be secured from the following words of one of the closest students of the Santuc section of Union County to the effect that

the Quakers, who came early in the eighteenth century, were the first settlers of Santuc. About 1750, the Virginians came in considerable numbers, and following Braddock's defeat in 1755 there was a large number of Pennsylvanians who settled here. The Quakers all left between 1800 and 1820, due to their opposition to slavery, and settled in southern Ohio and Indiana. The Pennsylvanians, though they were never slaveholders to any extent, nor to any great degree large landowners, remained, and today their descendants form some of our most reliable and substantial citizens. The Virginians owned slaves, became prosperous, and were large plantation owners. Our Santuc people of today are largely descendants of these pioneers, and fully half of the families here can trace their lineage back to the Revolution.

It is clear from these remarks that the composition and characteristics of the population of Santuc Township reflect the influence of the culture pattern of large plantations and many slaves characterizing its ante-bellum civilization.

Whatever may or may not be the case elsewhere, in many sections of the South it is possible, with a marked degree of exactitude, to sort the population of a community into an upper, a middle, and a lower class. The difficulty of such a task is much reduced in an area with the cultural background characterizing Santuc Township. In the process of classification, the writer did not rely solely upon his own knowledge of a community to which he was native, but leaned heavily upon the estimate of an older citizen, possessed of a scientifically trained mind and whose profession through the last forty years has brought him to know intimately every white family in the township.

It is difficult to define the basis on which such a separation into classes is made. It is the sort of matter which one "senses" rather than brings to exact statement. The process involves both social and economic considerations, with family tradition and community worth as essential elements. An accurate list of the white population in the township in 1900 was sorted into classes, and the same thing was done for a similar list of those there in 1930. In addition, it was determined through interviews what has happened to each of the individuals there in 1900; and the origin of all those in the township in 1930 who were not there at the earlier census period.

After the classification had been made in this manner, its accuracy was checked as it related to certain measurable economic characteristics available from the taxbooks of the county. The upper class was revealed as preponderantly a landowning class with farms averaging about 500 acres in 1900. The middle class, to the extent of nearly half of them, own farms averaging around one-half the size of those belonging to the upper class, and property assessed at considerably less than one-half the value. The lower class consisted very largely of a non-landowning group, and the great bulk of them, even under normal conditions for agriculture, undoubtedly would be correctly designated as "submarginal" farmers.

The objection may be raised that the sample is a small one, but this is met by the statement that it is complete for the universe which it represents—a township approximately eighty-one square miles in extent. It would have been valuable to have secured for the Negroes data similar to those for the whites, but neither time nor facilities made this possible. Besides, the attempt to assort them according to classes would have been well-nigh impossible.

In 1900 the upper class in Santuc Township numbered 250, 36 per cent of the total white population. By 1930 the number in this class had decreased to 160, or 28 per cent of the total. Clearly, there has been a significant depletion of the upper class over the thirty-year period, consisting of 90 persons, or 36 per cent of the 1900 total in this group.

On the contrary, the middle class shows a gain of 15 per cent during the same period. In 1900 those in this class numbered 314, or

45.2 per cent of the total white population; in 1930 the figure had increased to 361, or 63.2 per cent.

The most extensive decrease has taken place in the lower class. In 1900 they numbered 131, or 18.8 per cent of the total white population. Thirty years later this figure had declined to 50, or 8.8 per cent of the entire white population of the township, a 61.8 percentage decrease.

When the matter is approached from the standpoint of the depletion of the original stock in the township in 1900, a decrease is noted

TABLE I  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE WHITE POPULATION OF SANTUC  
TOWNSHIP BY CLASSES, 1900 AND 1930

CLASS	1900		1930		PERCENTAGE INCREASE OR DECREASE *
	Number	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total	
Upper.....	250	36.0	160	28.0	-36.0
Middle.....	314	45.2	361	63.2	+15.0
Lower.....	131	18.8	50	8.8	-61.8
Total....	695	100.0	571	100.0	-17.8

\* The + sign denotes an increase; the - sign, a decrease.

in every one of the classes. The upper class, through continued residence and natural increase, in 1930 totaled 123, as compared with 250 in 1900. This is a depletion of 50.8 per cent, somewhat more than half. The corresponding picture for the middle class was a 49.4 per cent decrease; and for the lower class it amounted to 80.9 per cent of the 1900 total. The entire white population revealed a 55.8 per cent depletion of the original stock within the township during the thirty-year period.

The figures in Table II indicate that of the original 250 in the upper class in 1900, the aggregate number still living for whom data could be secured was 153. There were 191 who are known to be living of the 1900 total of 314 in the middle class. And of the 131 total in the lower class at the earlier period, 80 of them are yet living.

It is possible to assort the white population of 1930 by classes into

those who were in the township in 1900, continuing until 1930, plus their offspring residing in the township, and those who have moved into the community since 1900. When this is done, it is observed that only 23.1 per cent of the upper class were to be accounted for by immigration, and a considerable number of these were the husbands and wives who came into the community as a result of marriage to the original stock in this classification in 1900. The proportion of the middle class which is to be explained by immigration is 55.9 per cent, or 202 individuals. A significant number of these, 68 in all, moved

TABLE II  
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE WHITE POPULATION OF 1900 BY CLASSES  
AND SEX AS TO WHETHER LIVING OR DECEASED

CLASS	ENTIRE WHITE POPULATION OF 1900			DECEASED			AGGREGATE NUMBER STILL LIVING AND FOR WHOM DATA ARE AVAILABLE			NO DATA CONCERNING		
	Total	Males	Fe- males	Total	Males	Fe- males	Total	Males	Fe- males	Total	Males	Fe- males
Upper....	250	135	115	94	44	50	153	89	64	3	2	1
Middle....	314	169	145	101	56	45	191	101	90	22	12	10
Lower....	131	73	58	49	21	28	80	50	30	2	2	0
Total..	695	377	318	244	121	123	424	240	184	27	16	11

into the community because of sawmill work, electrical work in the power plant, and road-construction work in progress at the time the last census on population was taken. A considerable part of those engaged in the preparation of the cement highway from the county seat, Union, to Carlisle in the same county, via Santuc, left the township after the completion of the road the following year. Those who did so numbered 18. Among those constituting the lower class in 1930, 25, or 50 per cent of them, represented an accretion from immigration into the township.

To what extent has the drawing power of the cities been a factor in the situation just described? Of the 153 among the upper class in the township in 1900 who are still living and for whom data are available, 59, or 38.6 per cent, are to be found in urban centers of

2,500 population and above. Among the upper group, 43.8 per cent of the females are residing in cities, and 34.8 per cent of the males.

TABLE III  
THE ORIGIN OF THE 1930 WHITE POPULATION BY CLASSES

CLASS	TOTAL IN 1930 CENSUS	NUMBER WHO WERE IN THE TOWNSHIP IN 1900 AND WERE *STILL LIVING THERE IN 1930 PLUS THEIR OFF- SPRING RESIDING IN THE TOWNSHIP	NUMBER WHO HAVE MOVED INTO THE COMMUNITY SINCE 1900			PERCENTAGE ACCOUNTED FOR BY IMMIGRA- TION INTO THE COMMUNITY
			Farming*	Other Work†	Total	
Upper.....	160	123	34	3	37	23.1
Middle.....	361	159	134	68	202	55.9
Lower.....	50	25	14	11	25	50.0
Total....	571	307	182	82	264	46.2

\* Includes wives of men living there in 1900 and who were also there in 1930, but their wives came from outside the township; and the husbands of women who were native to the community but their husbands came from outside of the township.

† Mainly road-construction work, electrical work in power plant, sawmill work, and merchandising.

TABLE IV  
THE NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF THE WHITES IN THE TOWNSHIP IN 1900  
WHO ARE LIVING IN URBAN CENTERS

CLASS	AGGREGATE NUMBER STILL LIVING AND FOR WHOM DATA ARE AVAILABLE			NUMBER NOW LOCATED IN URBAN CENTERS			PERCENTAGE OF THOSE NOW LIVING WHO HAVE MIGRATED TO CITIES		
	Total	Males	Fe- males	Total	Males	Fe- males	Total	Males	Fe- males
Upper.....	153	89	64	59	31	28	38.6	34.8	43.8
Middle.....	191	101	90	46	26	20	24.1	25.7	22.2
Lower.....	80	50	30	49	32	17	61.3	64.0	56.7
Total.....	424	240	184	154	89	65	36.3	37.1	35.3

The middle class shows both the smallest numerical and the proportionate losses of the three classes to the cities. There were 46, or 24.1 per cent, of a total of 191 living who reside in urban centers.

The males to the extent of 25.7 per cent have moved cityward, and the females to the less extent of 22.2 per cent.

The largest proportionate loss to the cities is in the lower class. Of these, 49, or 61.3 per cent of a total of 80 still living, are to be found in cities, largely adjacent to the township, where textile mill work is available. Of these, 64 per cent are males and 56.7 per cent females.

Among an aggregate number of 424 of the original 1900 white population who are still living and for whom data are available, 154, or 36.3 per cent, are to be found in cities, far and near. Of these, there are 89 males, or 37.1 per cent of a total of 240, and 65 females, or 35.3 per cent of a total of 154.

These facts indicate that numerically the largest loss to the city is among the upper class. There are 59 of these as over against 49 of the lower class and 46 of the middle class. The proportionate loss is heaviest with the lower class, 61.3 per cent, with the next most severe drain of 38.6 per cent upon the upper class. The middle class, revealing a 24.1 per cent loss to the cities, is less affected by the pulling power of the cities. Thus, the urban trend from this township during the last thirty years has been primarily among the extremes, with less impingement upon the middle group. In actual numbers lost, there is clearly indicated a serious qualitative depletion of the upper class.

In the upper class, of the 59 migrating to cities, 22 per cent are in cities in Union County, South Carolina; 35.6 per cent are in South Carolina cities outside of Union County; and 42.4 per cent are to be found in cities far and near outside of the state. The migrants to cities in the county are about equally balanced as to sex; but in cities in the state outside of Union County, the women outnumber the men 2 to 1. When the migration is outside of the state, the men preponderate in a ratio somewhat more than 2 to 1.

By far the larger proportion of the urban migrants in the middle class have remained within the state of South Carolina. Of these, 45 per cent have migrated to cities in Union County. There are 37 per cent who have moved to urban centers in the state outside of the county in which Santuc Township is located. Cities outside of the state have attracted only 17.4 per cent of the total urban migrants in the middle class. The males in this class preponderate over

the females in the migration to cities in the county and outside of the state. The females, in larger numbers than the males, have gone to cities in South Carolina outside of the county in which they were residing in 1900.

The lower class shows only 4.1 per cent who have moved to cities outside of the state. There are 69.4 per cent who are to be found in the city of Union; and 26.5 per cent largely in the mills of Whitmire and Chester, South Carolina, in immediately adjacent counties. Except in the even balance of the sexes in the migration out of the bor-

TABLE V  
OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF URBAN MIGRANTS BY CLASSES

OCCUPATIONAL CLASS	NUMBER OF URBAN MIGRANTS			PERCENTAGE OF URBAN MIGRANT		
	Upper	Middle	Lower	Upper	Middle	Lower
Professional class. . .	17	2	0	28.8	4.4	0.0
Business class. . . . .	26	11	1	44.1	23.9	2.0
Clerical class. . . . .	10	4	2	16.9	8.7	4.1
Domestic service. . . .	0	0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Skilled and semi-skilled labor. . . . .	4	24	46	6.8	52.2	93.9
Occupation unknown	2	5	0	3.4	10.8	0.0
Total. . . . .	59	46	49	100.0	100.0	100.0

ders of the state, the males in this class moving to nearby cities mainly for employment in textile manufacturing establishments exceed the females in numbers.

To what sort of opportunities are the individuals of these several classes attracted in the cities to which they move? The accompanying Table V provides a good answer to this question. A considerable but undetermined percentage of the upper class have had the advantages of a college or business-school training. It is, consequently, not surprising that the professional class claims around 29 per cent of them; that 44 per cent of them are mainly in the independent business class; that around 17 per cent of them are in the clerical class—approximately 90 per cent of them in these upper brackets of the occupational scale.

In contrast, the middle class records 4.4 per cent of its urban mi-



grants in the professional class, around 24 per cent in the business class, and 9 per cent in the clerical class—a total of 37 per cent in the three higher levels of occupations. There are 52.2 per cent in the ranks of the skilled and semiskilled labor.

The lower class, consisting mainly of the non-property-owning individuals and largely of submarginal farming status, are, approximately 94 per cent of them, in the skilled and semiskilled occupational classification. Almost without exception, the work of these is that of the cotton-mill or knitting-mill laborer in the adjacent textile centers principally within a radius of 15–25 miles. One of them in the business class runs a small store in a mill village, and two others clerk in stores in the county-seat town.

The middle class in largest proportions has continued on the farm. Of the 191 of the whites in this classification in the township in 1900 who are still living and for whom data are available, 127, or 66.5 per cent, are to be found on farms in various locations, inside and out of the county. Among these there are 65 males and 62 females.

The next highest proportion of those now living on farms is to be found in the case of the upper class. Of 153 of those yet alive, 78, or 51 per cent, are in the farming occupation as husbands, wives, sons, or daughters. With the upper group, the males are almost twice as frequently represented as the females among their contingent who are farming (51:27).

The lower class has remained on the farm to the extent of only 36.3 per cent. In a total of 80 of this class who are still living and their whereabouts known, only 29—16 males and 13 females—are at present on farms. The pull of the opportunity the lower class see or imagine they see in the textile industry developing around them has attracted nearly two-thirds of them away from their poorly managed tenant farms. Perhaps they have been bettered in the process. Some are decidedly of the opinion that such is the case; others, that it is not.

Nearly 50 per cent of the middle class of 1900 who are still living on farms are located in Santuc Township. There are 32.3 per cent on farms in other townships in the same county; 15.7 per cent farm-

ing in South Carolina outside of Union County; and 2.4 per cent who are located on farms in other states.

In the upper class, 52.6 per cent of the individuals living on farms are in Santuc Township. Farms in other townships of Union County claim 20.5 per cent of them, while 24.4 per cent are farming in other counties of South Carolina and 2.5 per cent are located on farms outside of the state.

The distribution of the 29 in the lower class who are farming is as follows: 58.6 per cent; on farms in Santuc Township; 34.5 per cent,

TABLE VI

THE NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF THE NON-FARMING WHITES IN THE TOWNSHIP IN 1900 WHO ARE LIVING IN TOWNS AND VILLAGES OF LESS THAN 2,500 POPULATION

CLASS	AGGREGATE NUMBER STILL LIVING AND FOR WHOM DATA ARE AVAILABLE			NUMBER NOW LOCATED IN TOWNS AND VILLAGES OF LESS THAN 2,500 POPULATION			PERCENTAGE OF THOSE NOW LIVING WHO ARE IN VILLAGES		
	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males	Total	Males	Fe-males
Upper.....	153	89	64	16	7	9	10.5	7.9	14.1
Middle.....	191	101	90	18	10	8	9.4	9.9	8.9
Lower.....	80	50	30	2	1	1	2.5	2.0	3.3
Total.....	424	240	184	36	18	18	8.5	7.5	9.8

farming in other parts of Union County; and 6.9 per cent in South Carolina outside of the county where they were living in 1900. None of them is on a farm in other states.

The small towns and villages of less than 2,500 population have drawn to non-farming occupations 8.5 per cent of the aggregate number of the whites in the township in 1900 who are still living and their whereabouts are known. The proportionate attraction in this direction has been strongest (10.5 per cent) in the upper class, next greatest (9.4 per cent) in the middle class, and least (2.5 per cent) with the lower class. It is at once apparent that much of this loss partakes of an urban nature, since employment such as banking, merchandising, telegraphy, mail-riding, electrical work, and skilled

and semiskilled labor in the smaller cotton-mill centers is what affords the basis of living for these non-farming village migrants.

Of those in the upper class who have migrated to villages, 50 per cent are in such centers within Union County; 37.5 per cent are in other parts of South Carolina; and 12.5 per cent, in towns and villages of less than 2,500 in other states. Approximately 61 per cent of the village migrants reside within the county; 16.7 per cent in South Carolina outside of Union County; and 22.2 per cent in towns and villages outside of the state. The lower class shows only two migrants to towns and villages of less than urban classification, all of whom are located within the county.

#### SUMMARY

The area considered in this study was chosen because of the author's familiarity with it, and because its culture patterns lent themselves to the class approach which has been used. A further commending characteristic is that the township is entirely rural in character, and a severe depopulation, among white and Negro, has been taking place in it during the last thirty years. Moreover, the township is located in the Piedmont Plateau, where during the last three decades a marked industrialization has been the order of the day. Then, too, its agriculture has been upon a good average level until the depression of recent years, when it has suffered with the rest of the nation. Because of the typicality of the area, it is felt that what has been discovered to be the situation as to population change may be inferred as taking place in sections similarly situated over a wide territory. But for fear of valid criticism of the soundness of such generalization, it is understood that the phenomena herein described are claimed to apply only to the township specifically studied.

The data presented in the preceding pages clearly show that this rural township during the thirty-year period from 1900 to 1930 has sustained a severe depletion in its upper class, a considerable proportion of this being occasioned by migration to cities, adjacent and distant. This large loss of the leading stock of the community, unless corrective forces, economic, social, or otherwise, are brought about to

check it, must, as is already beginning to be indicated, undesirably lower the levels of life in the rural section affected.

The fact that the middle class, through immigration into the area, has increased 15 per cent is the most encouraging of all the facts determined. From a vigorous middle class, under conditions of a profitable agriculture, the depletions in the ranks of the upper class may be partly repaired. It is believed that owing to the unusually high quality of the old original families of the township, even at the present stage of their depletion, the damage done is irreparable as measured by former levels of cultural development. However, the upper classes have always been recruited from the middle classes, and there is much for which to be thankful in the fact that in the township under observation the middle group persists in farming.

The situation is a striking one with regard to the lower class in this area. Here the heaviest losses have been incurred, without a doubt to the general improvement of the community. The industrial development has offered a haven to the struggling submarginal farmers, the more backward element of the citizenship. And they have availed themselves of it perhaps decidedly to their own economic and social development. As they have stepped out, their farms either have gone out of cultivation or have been taken over for more efficient management by the accretions to the middle class.

Any community which has as much as a half or more of its population, in this instance approximately 76 per cent, composed of Negroes is unfortunately situated. Therefore, the fact that cityward migration, together with other factors, has decreased the Negro population around one-third, and relatively by approximately 6 per cent, is a salutary tendency which will operate to the best long-time interests of the community.

Thus, while the conclusion is inescapable that the township has suffered severely in the absolute and proportionate losses of its best people, there are partially compensating tendencies accompanying the process which, though they cannot be expected to restore the former level of the population composition of the community, will preserve it to a continued wholesome functioning.

## TRENDS OF CHANGE IN TEXTBOOKS ON THE FAMILY

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### ABSTRACT

Textbooks on the family, published by American writers since the World War, have largely abandoned the ethnological and historical treatment of the subject, which predominated in earlier texts, and have turned toward social problems and personality relationships of family life. Similar trends are evident in articles on the family published in social science periodicals. But courses on the family in colleges and universities have lagged in shifting from the old to the new interests. A group of young mothers, when asked what additional training they wished their college courses might have given them, showed overwhelmingly more interest in the social psychology of family relations than in sociological theory. Courses on the family may well be reconsidered, not merely in the light of pure science, but also in view of the needs and interests of the students, and the trends of modern thought.

Revolutionary changes have occurred since the war in the proportionate emphasis placed on various topics in textbooks on the family and in articles appearing in social science journals on this subject. But courses on the family in colleges and universities have shown a marked lag in their adjustment to these new interests and ideas.

To discover the trends in contents of textbooks on the family, five texts published between 1886 and 1915 were studied, and eight published between 1926 and 1931. Each of these books may be characterized by comparison with the central tendencies of the group to which it belongs.

Charles F. Thwing published *The Family: An Historical and Social Study*, in 1886. Its analytical table of contents shows that it differs from the other pre-war texts in three outstanding particulars. First, it gives about 16 per cent of its attention to religious aspects of the family, while the other four averaged about 4 per cent. Second, it devotes nearly 14 per cent of its attention to social theory, while the other pre-war texts average less than 4 per cent. Third, these excesses are made up by devoting less than the average attention to the primitive family, to biological aspects, and to parent-child relations.

Charles Letourneau published *The Evolution of Marriage and the Family* in 1900. The outstanding characteristic of this text is that it

devotes 33 per cent of its attention to family life among primitive people—more than twice the pre-war average, and ten times the post-war average. Its next outstanding feature is its devotion of 28 per cent of its attention to the history of the family before 1600—an amount exceeded only by Goodsell's 1915 text. A third feature is 18 per cent devoted to problems of sex ethics. These three topics account for more than three-quarters of Letourneau's text. He also gave more space to the biological aspects of the family than any other pre-war text. But he neglected divorce and personality relationships almost entirely.

Elsie W. Clews Parsons, in 1906, brought out *The Family; An Ethnographic and an Historical Outline*, planned as a text for college lectures and for home reading clubs. To the primitive family Mrs. Parsons devoted 22 per cent of her attention—an amount exceeded only by Letourneau. To the historical family previous to 1600, however, she gave only 10 per cent—less than half the average for the pre-war texts. Her most distinguished characteristic was the 12 per cent which she devoted to parent-child relationships—nearly twice the amount given by any other pre-war text. She seems to have been a pioneer in recognizing the need for study of the interactions of personalities in families. She also stressed the economic aspects of family life more than any of her contemporaries. On the whole, her text is the best rounded of any in the pre-war group.

George Elliott Howard, in addition to his monumental *History of Matrimonial Institutions*, got out an analytical reference syllabus in 1914, entitled *The Family and Marriage*. Since this approximates more closely to a textbook than his three-volume work, it has been analyzed here. More than any of its predecessors, it features the history of the family subsequent to 1600, to which it devotes 14 per cent of its space. Its greatest difference from the other pre-war texts, however, is its devotion of 21 per cent to divorce, while the others average 6 per cent, and the post-war texts also 6 per cent. But it gives less than 2 per cent to sex ethics, as compared with an average of 10 per cent in the other pre-war texts. To religion his 10 per cent ranks next to Thwing's 16, and is not approached by the other three texts.

Willystine Goodsell's *History of the Family as a Social and Educa-*

*tional Institution* was issued in 1915 as one of a series of texts in education. True to its title, it devotes 51 per cent of its space to the historical aspects of the family, as compared with an average of 26 in the other pre-war texts. To the primitive family it gives less than one-third the attention characteristic of other pre-war texts. Eco-

TABLE I

TOPICS	AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF SPACE ALLOTTED IN	
	Pre-war Texts	Post-war Texts
Primitive family life.....	15.3	3.1
History of the family		
To 1600.....	22.5	2.7
Since 1600.....	8.5	3.0
Biological aspects; eugenics; birth rates; health aspects.....	3.8	8.1
Dependency, illegitimacy, desertion, and other social phases.....	0.2	6.1
Research and statistics.....	0.7	4.4
Economic aspects.....	4.2	9.8
Status of women.....	5.5	5.9
Birth control and abortion.....	0.8	2.1
Sex ethics; prostitution.....	8.4	9.0
Divorce.....	9.0	5.7
Courtship; early and companionate marriage	1.7	5.5
Husband-wife relationships.....	1.4	2.7
Parent-child relationships; education.....	5.6	10.9
Social psychology of the family.....	0.2	7.6
Totals of last four items.....	8.9	28.5
Social theory.....	5.7	6.4
Religion.....	6.5	7.0
Grand totals.....	100.0	100.0

nomic aspects of marriage, the status of women, and courtship are stressed more than in preceding texts, while sex ethics and social theory receive far less than the usual quotas of space.

The World War marked an abrupt change in the character of books on the family. This shift may be summarized by presenting comparative average allotments of emphasis in the two groups of texts (see Table I).

A still more compact summary is shown in Table II.

The above "compact summary" shows that the attention to primitive and historical aspects of the family has dropped from nearly half to less than one-tenth since the war, while other aspects have correspondingly increased in emphasis. Bearing in mind this general shift of emphasis, the individual characteristics of the post-war texts may now be considered:

Paul B. Popenoe published *The Conservation of the Family* in 1926. As compared with other post-war texts, its outstanding characteristic is its emphasis on eugenics, biological aspects, birth rates, and health. These phases received 31 per cent of Popenoe's attention, as compared with 5 per cent in the other post-war texts. He also gave

TABLE II

	Pre-war	Post-war
Primitive and historical family.....	46.3	8.8
Social work: research; economic aspects....	5.1	20.3
Personality relationships.....	8.9	28.5
Other phases.....	39.7	42.4
Totals.....	100.0	100.0

twice the usual amount of attention to sex ethics. Space devoted to personal relations and other topics is correspondingly below the average amount.

Ernest R. Groves brought out *Social Problems of the Family* in 1927. This book nearly doubles the amount of attention given by any previous text to the social psychology of relations between members of the family. Its other most distinctive characteristic is its clinging to interest in the primitive family, a topic to which it devotes twice the attention given by any other text, among those analyzed, published since 1914.

In 1928, Groves combined with William F. Ogburn to produce *American Marriage and Family Relationships*. Due to Ogburn's contributions, this text devotes 18 per cent of its attention to statistics and research, as compared with an average of 2 per cent for other post-war texts. Conditions under which marriage occurs receive sta-



tistical analysis in 12 per cent of the space, as compared with 3 per cent in other post-war texts. Groves' contribution raises the proportionate attention devoted to social psychology to a high point. Relatively little attention is given to parent-child relations, sex ethics, illegitimacy, birth control, eugenics, and desertion.

Willystine Goodsell issued a second text in this field in 1928, under the title *Problems of the Family*. Presumably influenced by her own earlier work, this book devotes 7 per cent of its attention to the history of family relations previous to 1600, whereas the average of other post-war texts has been only a little over 1 per cent. To the status of women, it gives 14, while other post-war texts average 5 per cent. Goodsell also leads the field in her emphasis on economic factors and on birth control. These surpluses are made up for by cutting to 14 per cent the attention to personal relationships in the family. This is the lowest post-war figure; the other texts average 30 per cent.

G. W. Fiske, a professor of religious education, brought out *The Changing Family* in 1928. Of all the texts under review, this gives the largest emphasis to religion—35 per cent, as compared with a 3 per cent average for other post-war texts. Even Thwing in 1886 gave less than half as much space to religion as Fiske gives. Whereas the other recent texts are chiefly concerned (in their religious references) with attitudes of churches toward birth control and divorce, Fiske stresses the importance of religious faith, worship, the Bible, and spiritual training in family life. The other outstanding characteristics of this text are the emphasis on parent-child relationships and the attention given to the recent history of the family.

Ruth Reed, in 1929, published a text entitled *The Modern Family*. True to its title, this book gives less attention than any other in the list to the primitive and historic family. It leads the field with 14 per cent devoted to such topics as illegitimacy, desertion, and family social case work; other post-war texts average 5 per cent on this group of topics. Miss Reed's book is second from the top in the emphasis which it gives to personal relationships in the family, where her outstanding stresses are on parent-child relations and companionate marriage or allied adjustments.

E. B. Reuter and J. R. Runner published in 1931 a book of readings entitled *The Family: Source Materials for the Study of Family*

*and Personality*. This book conforms fairly closely to the central tendencies of post-war texts on the family. Its outstanding departure is 13 per cent devoted to sociological theory, whereas the post-war average is 5 per cent. Other topics stressed somewhat more than usual in this text are husband-wife relations, divorce, birth control, the primitive family, biological phases, and research. The greatest deficiencies in emphasis, compared with other texts, have to do with courtship and with religion.

Ernest R. Mowrer's *The Family, Its Organization and Disorganization*, appeared also in 1931. Its stress is strongly on theory: 22 per cent goes to the social psychology of family life, and 19 per cent to sociological theory—a total of 41 per cent as compared with an average of 10 per cent for other post-war texts. In handling personality relationship, Mowrer put twice the average stress on courtship, and less than half the average on parent-child relations. This text ignores almost entirely birth-control and the biological and health aspects of the family.

In 1933 Groves brought out a text called *Marriage*, which is devoted entirely to the practical personal problems of courtship, marriage adjustment, and child rearing. This book is not covered in the statistical analysis presented in this article.

In addition to the books referred to above, two foreign texts have been revived recently for use in the United States. One is F. C. Müller-Lyer's *The Family*, translated in 1931 from a German text originally published in 1911. Like other pre-war texts, this is chiefly ethnological and historical. The other of this type is E. A. Westermarck's *A Short History of Marriage*, derived from the 1921 edition of his 1891 treatise. This book is primarily ethnological, with scattering historical references. Other ethnological and historical studies related to the family have been published since the war but none of them, as far as the present writer can discover, have been offered as general texts for courses on the family.

The same broad changes evident in family textbooks are apparent also in the shifts of emphasis in articles on the family published in social science periodicals and indexed in the *Reader's Guide*, *Poole's Index*, and the *International Index*. Judging from titles indexed from 1892 to 1904, 26 per cent of the attention in these articles was

devoted to the primitive family and the historic family up to 1600. In 1905-14, this had fallen to 7 per cent; in 1929-32, it was only 2 per cent. Like textbooks, the scientific articles in this field have largely lost their early interest in the primitive and ancient family. But the articles have included in late years an increasing amount of material about family life in foreign countries.

The trend toward socio-psychological discussion of personal relations in the family has also been evident in scientific articles. This group of topics had 14 per cent of the attention in 1892-1904, 13 per cent in 1905-14, and 38 per cent in 1929-32. The increase, for the articles as well as the textbooks, was evident in relation to courtship, husband-wife relations, parent-child relations, and the social psychology of the family in general.

Sex ethics and prostitution absorbed 32 per cent of attention in 1905-14, as compared with 7 per cent in the earlier period, and 8 in 1929-32. The surge of interest in this topic just before the war may be reflected in the fact that the highest percentages of space devoted to these topics are in the earliest of the post-war texts, while the more recent ones are less concerned with it.

Eugenics and biological aspects of the family had 18 per cent of the attention in articles before 1904. This declined to 6 per cent in 1929-32. Even this, however, was more than twice the quota given in the textbooks.

Scientific articles on the status of women, on divorce, and on religious aspects of the family were at low points in 1929-32 as compared with previous periods.

Compared with the textbooks written by American authors, and with scientific articles on the family, courses offered in forty-one colleges and universities have shown marked cultural lag. As a basis for judging the emphasis on various topics, the descriptions of courses on the family in catalogues available early in 1930 were analyzed.<sup>1</sup> Judging from these descriptions, the attention given to the primitive family was at least three times as great in the courses as in the post-war textbooks, and the attention given to the ancient and medieval history of the family in the courses was at least twice as great as in the texts. To these two phases together, the courses

<sup>1</sup> Miss Dorothy Hankins assisted the writer in this work.

devoted at least 17 per cent of their attention, while the recent texts give 6 per cent, and the recent scientific articles only 2 per cent. The courses also devote much more attention to social theory than the texts or the scientific articles. The outstanding deficiencies in the courses, as indicated in their announcements, are in their relative neglect of research and of personal relations in the family. This latter deficiency is especially marked in connection with parent-child relations, to which the courses give hardly more attention than the pre-war texts, almost ignoring the great growth of interest shown in recent texts and scientific articles. To this topic they give less than 7 per cent, as compared with 11 in the recent texts, and 16 in recent scientific articles.

Courses on the family have grown up traditionally rather than from any study of the needs and interests of students. Two pieces of evidence are available, however, to suggest where some of the participants in these courses would like to have their attention directed. Ruth Lindquist asked 306 young mothers what additional training for family life they would like to have had from their college education. Of these, 77 per cent mentioned child training; 53 per cent mentioned psychology; 37 per cent management; 31 nutrition; 25 philosophy and literature; 25 household skills; 20 art; 18 sociology; 15 education; 3 nursing, hygiene, and medical information; and 1 per cent religion. From the standpoint of needs felt by women students when they face the actual problems of family life, the psychology of family relations, particularly as applied to children, has eight times as much importance as everything that goes under the term sociology.<sup>2</sup>

A sociology class of nine Haverford College men asked Professor Frank Watson eighty questions, which grouped themselves fairly evenly under the following seven major fields of interest: (1) the problems that sex presents before marriage is economically possible; (2) the wise choice of a mate; (3) possible variations in the form of marriage such as companionate marriage; (4) the husband-wife relationship and the problem of individual adjustment called for by marriage; (5) the problem of family limitation or birth control; (6)

<sup>2</sup> Ruth Lindquist, *The Family in the Present Social Order: A Study of Needs of American Families*, 1931, p. 88.

the problems that parenthood brings, including the proper preparation of children for marriage; and (7) the problem of the breakdown of family life and divorce.<sup>3</sup>

Many sociologists will feel that courses on the family should pay no attention to the practical needs of the students but should approach the subject from the standpoint of pure science. But the trend of textbooks and of scientific articles has been away from the ethnological and historical phases, where purely scientific interests dominate, and toward the social and psychological problems of the family, where applied science seeks to be of service. In view of the facts in hand, it is suggested that sociologists reconsider and formulate more clearly the objectives which they have in view, in these courses.

<sup>3</sup> *Social Forces*, XI (1932), 235-41.

## NOTE ON A MISCONCEPTION OF STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

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### ABSTRACT

Ross's criticism of the Faris investigation of insanity rates, in insisting upon a critical ratio of exactly three or more, makes appeal to an element of magic which is not warranted by the actual nature of reliability measures. Ross, further, does not take cognizance of the increased reliability due to the fact that the differences are prevailing in the same direction. In computing standard errors it is important to take account of the element of correlation.

In the January, 1933, number of the *American Journal of Sociology* Professor Frank Alexander Ross undertakes a criticism of the statistical procedures employed by Faris in his study of insanity rates in relation to radial areas in Chicago. In this criticism the concept of statistical significance is so grossly misapplied by Dr. Ross that an answer seems called for in order to guard sociologists who employ statistical procedures against the magic in the use of statistical tools of which investigators in some other fields have been guilty.

1. Dr. Ross holds that in order to be statistically significant a difference must be exactly three times its standard error or more. Where one of the differences found by Faris was  $1\frac{5}{8} = 2.89$  times its standard error, instead of 3 times, Ross says: "we can not claim significance for the difference. It is quite possible that, conditions remaining the same, another time we would find the rate for Area 38 greater than that for Area 33."

But there is no such magic in a ratio of just 3. To make this appeal to a ratio of precisely 3 or more is always a sign either that the writer himself is still in the realm of magic as far as statistics is concerned or else that he is "kidding" his readers. In order to get this 3 in right perspective, let us see where it comes from.

If, in making a comparison between groups, we take successive samplings for comparison, our obtained differences will vary somewhat from sample to sample. A few of the differences will diverge widely from the modal ones, but the bulk of them will differ relatively little from one another and from the mode. It is a reasonable

assumption that these differences will make a normal distribution centering about the "true" difference as a mean, as shown in Figure 1.

These differences from successive samples have a certain scatter, in some problems great and in some small, according to the nature of the problem. We can ascertain this variability, measuring it in terms of any of our variability measures. It is customary to measure this variability in terms of the standard deviation of the distribution. If we actually had many samples in hand we could readily *compute*

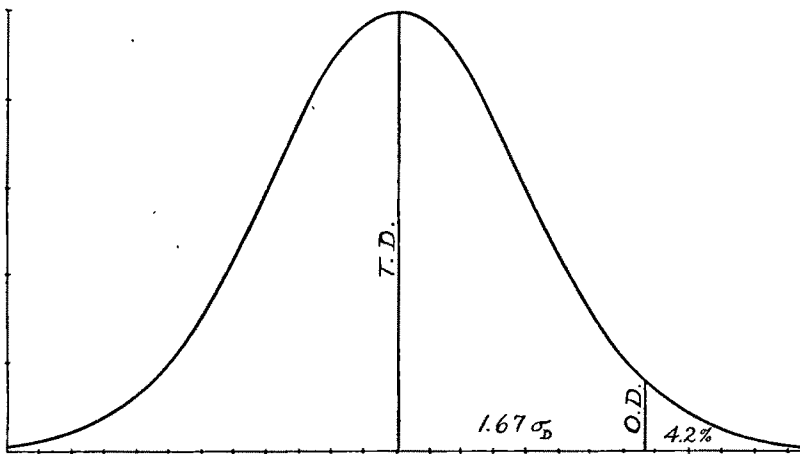


FIG. 1

the  $\sigma$  of the differences. But since, in most problems, we do not have these many samples in hand, we must *infer* the standard deviation of *possible* further samples on theoretical grounds from characteristics of the one sample we have in hand. We call this inferred standard deviation the *standard error*. Fortunately we have well-authenticated formulas for inferring standard errors for most of the statistics with which we have occasion to deal.

Suppose, now, we have an obtained difference from a particular experimental comparison of 3 points (in percentages, inches, or what not), and a standard error of that difference of 1.8 points, the difference having the plus sign when our groups are taken in a certain order. With further samplings some differences must be

expected to be smaller than 3 and some larger. We wish to know what the chances are that the difference will not descend to zero and pass to the opposite side in favor of the other group. More correctly put, we wish to know what the chances are that the true difference is not zero or below. Let us then assume, hypothetically, that the true difference is zero, which we have indicated in our figure as *T.D.* If the standard error of the difference is 1.8, as assumed for our example, some obtained differences would go as high as 3 even if the true difference were zero, because that is only  $\frac{1}{1.8}$  or 1.67  $\sigma$ 's above the mean. Reference to a table of integrals of the normal curve shows that in the tail of a normal distribution beyond 1.67  $\sigma$ 's from the mean lie 4.2 per cent of the cases. This would be the percentage of trials on which one would be expected to get a difference of 3 points or more even though the true difference were zero. There is, therefore, a possibility of having gotten this observed difference as the result of chance sampling alone; but if so, something has happened that would happen only 4.2 times out of 100. That is, the chances are 95.8 out of 100 that such event would not have happened in contrast with 4.2 that it would happen, or 23 to 1, unless there were a true difference in the direction indicated by your obtained difference. If the difference were only large enough to make the ratio of the difference to its standard error .87, 21 per cent of the cases would lie above the point represented by the obtained difference, and the chances would be 79 in 100, or 3.5 to 1, against your having obtained this difference unless there was a true difference with the same sign. If the ratio were 2.8, the chances of a true difference in the same direction would be 389 to 1; if the ratio were 3, the chances would be 739 to 1; if 3.4, the chances would be 2,967 to 1; etc. In the particular instance mentioned above, where the ratio was 2.89 and which Dr. Ross labels "not significant," the chances of a true difference in the direction claimed are 518 to 1. The absurdity of drawing the line at a ratio of 3, as if it had some magic power, is therefore obvious. To be sure, it is often done by statistical workers; but then many investigators employ statistical procedures in the spirit of magic. Indeed, writers on statistics do not by any means all propose a ratio of 3 as even a norm; Fisher suggests 2 and McCall suggests 2.78.



2. Dr. Ross seems to think that, in a problem in which a series of interrelated differences is involved, the statistical significance of the finding hinges upon that of the differences taken individually. This, too, is a common error. But such an assumption violates a fundamental principle of probability. It is a fundamental theorem in the mathematics of probability that, if the chances of an event occurring on one trial are  $\frac{1}{p}$  and in another trial are  $\frac{1}{q}$ , they are the product of these two, or  $\frac{1}{pq}$ , that the event will occur in both the trials together. This same principle holds for chances of a true difference above zero. If on one sample the chances are, say, 200 to 1 against your having obtained a given difference if the true difference is as low as zero and on another sample they are 75 to 1 against your having gotten your difference if the real difference were as low as zero, the chances that you would not have obtained these positive differences both these times unless there were a real difference in that direction are the product of the 200 and the 75, or 15,000 to 1. The differences obtained by Faris were prevaillingly in the same direction, and consequently the total reliability of the showing that there is a declining insanity rate with increasing radial distances is to be determined by multiplying together the separate chances through the whole series. This makes the statistical significance of Faris's findings overwhelming.

3. In the particular study by Faris no correlation element is present in the paired samples between which differences are taken, since they are random samples from their respective populations instead of matched, and therefore restricted, samples. Hence the formula for the standard error of the difference employed by Dr. Ross is the correct one. But the practice of ignoring the correlation element even when it is present is so persistent, as is also the neglect to match groups where matching would involve a better controlled comparison, that it seems worth while here to call attention to a necessary addition to the formula for measuring the standard error of a difference where groups are matched on some criterion with which the factors are correlated between which we take our differences. This is the case where we wish to be able to say: "*Certain*

*other things being equal*, our two situations differ to such and such extent." We shall develop the formula in general terms, then it will be applicable to any difference.

Let  $x$  stand for any statistic (mean,  $\sigma$ ,  $r$ , proportion, or what not) and  $y$  for a similar statistic in another series to be compared with the first. Then, if  $D$  is the difference between the two statistics:

$$D = x - y.$$

Squaring both sides of the equation,

$$D^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2.$$

Summing for the whole number of samples,  $S$ , and dividing by their number,

$$\frac{\sum D^2}{S} = \frac{\sum x^2}{S} - \frac{2\sum xy}{S} + \frac{\sum y^2}{S}.$$

But if we are taking all of our items in terms of deviations from their respective means, our term on the left is  $\sigma^2$  of the differences, the first term on the right is  $\sigma_x^2$  and the last is  $\sigma_y^2$ . The middle term may be put into a form involving  $r$  if we multiply both its numerator and its denominator by  $\sigma_x\sigma_y$ . Making these changes we shall have

$$\sigma_D^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - \frac{2\sum xy}{S\sigma_x\sigma_y} \cdot \sigma_x\sigma_y$$

$$\sigma_D^2 = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - 2r_{xy}\sigma_x\sigma_y$$

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - 2r_{xy}\sigma_x\sigma_y}.$$

Thus in every standard error difference formula there must be three terms, since every such formula arises out of squaring a binomial, and a binomial when squared invariably yields three terms. The third term always contains the  $r$  between the two statistics, multiplied by twice the product of the standard errors of the statistics themselves. This third term is the one that is frequently neglected even when the situation calls for its presence, in which cases the standard errors as computed are too large.

Dr. Ross employs the formula:

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{\sigma_{R_1}^2 + \sigma_{R_2}^2}.$$

This is correct here, since the samples are random ones and hence the  $r$  is zero. But if we were raising the question of how persons of the same average wealth, or the same average intelligence, or the same average age, behave in respect to insanity or any other matter in adjacent areas, or how groups of the same intelligence or economic status respond to different methods of teaching or to other treatment, the  $r$  would not be zero and the tail of the formula would make a difference. The correct formula would then become,

$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{\sigma_{R_1}^2 + \sigma_{R_2}^2 - 2r_{R_1 R_2} \sigma_{R_1} \sigma_{R_2}}.$$

Correlation is always present if, by reason of some restriction placed upon the sampling, the samples drawn from the population overlap more than random samples would, even though the nature of the data make the actual computation of the coefficient of correlation impracticable. The  $r$  involved in the formula is that between the two statistics with which we are dealing. But such  $r$ 's, while difficult to compute directly, may usually be known in terms of the  $r$ 's between the two samples in hand. Thus the  $r$  between means in successive pairs of samples in correlated series,  $r_{m_1 m_2}$ , equals  $r_{12}$ ; that is, the  $r$  between the means is the same as the  $r$  between the individuals of the two matched samples in hand. Similarly  $r$  between proportions,  $r_{p_1 p_2}$ , =  $r_{12}$ ;  $r$  between standard deviations,  $r_{\sigma_1 \sigma_2}$ , equals  $r_{12}$ . The  $r$  between  $r$ 's involves a much more complicated formula, which is given by Kelley in his *Statistical Method*, page 179.

If in any particular case where correlation is likely to be present it is not considered feasible or worth while actually to compute its amount and use it in the formula, the writer should at least acknowledge that, on account of its presence, his obtained standard error is probably slightly too high. Mathematicians can work in the realm of certainties but in social research, as in psychological, our generalizations can express only probabilities. It is important that we know the actual strength of these probabilities. An underestimation of their strength is as misleading as an overestimation.

## AN UNPUBLISHED PROJECT OF THORSTEIN VEBLEN FOR AN ETHNOLOGICAL INQUIRY

JOSEPH DORFMAN  
Columbia University

In 1910 Thorstein Veblen was without employment. Through President Jordan of Stanford he sought a grant from the Carnegie Institution of Washington for an inquiry into the Cretan and Baltic civilizations along the lines presented in his famous course "Economic Factors of Modern Civilization." He prepared a memorandum of the plan, and in addition a supplementary statement of the expenses and time required which closed: "Finally, since my retirement from university work leaves me without an income, some provision of that character would necessarily be involved in my taking up this inquiry. I am accustomed to a salary of \$3,000 but in this matter, I shall, of course, be glad to defer entirely to the discretion of the Executive Committee." Nothing came of the proposal, but a number of copies of the memorandum remained in existence in addition to those sent to the Carnegie Institution. Professor Max Handman of the University of Michigan, who had been a student and colleague of Veblen at the University of Missouri, called the writer's attention to it in connection with a life-history of Veblen. In the following pages the memorandum is printed in full.

### AS TO A PROPOSED INQUIRY INTO BALTIC AND CRETAN ANTIQUITIES

The problem on which my interest in prehistoric matters finally converges is that of the derivation and early growth of those free or popular institutions which have marked off European civilization at its best from the great civilizations of Asia and Africa. These characteristic free institutions of the Western culture comprise the decisive traits of the domestic and religious life as well as those of the civil and political organization. It is conceived that the underlying forces to which this scheme of free institutions owes its rise and its sustained and peculiar growth are to be looked for (*a*) in the peculiar

native endowment of the races (or race) involved in the case, and (*b*) in the material (economic) circumstances under which the Western peoples have lived, particularly in early times. The centers of this cultural growth, as first known to history, have been the Aegean or East Mediterranean region on the one hand and the North Sea-Baltic region on the other hand. Within these regions, again, exploration has latterly thrown Crete, with its cultural neighbors and ramifications, into the foreground as the early center of growth and diffusion of the Aegean-Mediterranean culture, while it has similarly centered attention on the shores of the narrow Scandinavian waters as the most characteristic center of early culture in the North Sea-Baltic region. And (*c*) quite recently the Pumpelly explorations in Turkestan have brought to light a culture (at Anau) of a very striking character and showing features that argue for a degree of relationship—racial, economic, and institutional—to these European centers, such as should merit close inquiry.

There is apparently reason to look for (*a*) a racial connection in prehistoric (Neolithic) times between the peoples of the Aegean (Crete, etc.) and the peoples centering about the south shores of the Baltic, and (*b*) a sustained cultural connection, resting on trade relations, between the same regions and running through the Neolithic and Bronze Ages of northern Europe. It is believed that a sufficiently attentive canvass of the evidence will bring out a consequent similarity of character in the institutions under which the peoples of these two regions lived; which would argue that these two sources of what is most characteristic in later Western civilization are in great measure to be traced back to a common origin, racial and economic. And it is conceived that the late-known culture of Anau will come in as a complementary factor to round out this scheme of cultural growth by supplying elements which have hitherto seemed lacking in any attempted system of European prehistory. The "Aryan" explanation of this community of institutions, it may be added, is no longer tenable.

A study of other primitive cultures, remote and not visibly related to this early European civilization, shows a close correlation between the material (industrial and pecuniary) life of any given people and their civic, domestic, and religious scheme of life; and it

shows, further, that the myths and the religious cult reflect the character of these other—especially the economic and domestic—institutions in a peculiarly naïve and truthful manner.

An inquiry looking to the end here proposed, therefore, must have recourse to such industrial and pecuniary facts as are reflected by the available archaeological sites and exhibits, on the one hand, and to such indications of myth and religious cult as are afforded by the same explorations. These will have to be the main lines of approach, and it is along these lines that it is here proposed to review the evidence pertinent to the case—with the stress falling on the economic forces involved. A very considerable body of material is now available for such a study in this field of European prehistory, but little has been done toward exploiting it for the purpose here indicated. Nor has the material hitherto been canvassed in any comprehensive manner with such a question in mind.

While much of the material to be drawn on has been published in excellent shape, its publication has been under the hand of students and scholars animated with other interests than those here spoken for—more particularly has the economic (industrial and pecuniary) bearing of the materials exhibited received relatively scant attention. The men who have canvassed and edited the published materials have necessarily seen those materials in the light of their own interest, and so have brought out chiefly those features of the material upon which the light of their own interest would fall most strongly. Any student who approaches the material from a new quarter, therefore, and requires it to answer questions that were not present or not urgent in the minds of those earlier students, must see and review the sites and exhibits for himself and make such use as he can of these materials, with the help of other men already engaged in the general field which he enters. It is no less requisite to come into close personal contact with the men engaged than it is to make first-hand acquaintance with the available materials; for it is a most common trait of scientists, particularly when occupied with matter that is in any degree novel and growing, that they know and are willing to impart many things that are not primarily involved in the direct line of their own inquiry and many things, too, to which they may not be ready to commit themselves in print.

The evidences of the peculiar technological bent characteristic of Western civilization run very far back in the North Sea-Baltic culture, and the later explorations in Crete and its cultural dependencies suggest a similar aptitude for technological efficiency in the prehistoric Aegean culture. It is believed that a patient scrutiny of the available material for the two regions will go far to show (*a*) in what degree the two civilizations are to be correlated or contrasted on this technological side of their growth, (*b*) how far this technological peculiarity is to be traced back to racial or to environmental factors, and (*c*) what is the nature and force of the correlation, if any, between this peculiar development of technological efficiency and the early growth and character of that scheme of free institutions which today is as characteristic a trait of Western civilization as is its pre-eminence in point of technological efficiency.

It will be seen, therefore, that such an inquiry as is here had in view would require time and would involve a somewhat extended itinerary. At the outset, it is believed, a visit should be made to two or three of the less sophisticated Indian Pueblos of the Southwest, as the best available outside term of comparison by which to check certain features of the European evidence and particularly certain of the facts shown in the explorations at Anau.

The next move should, presumably, be to the sites and museums of Denmark and Sweden, with a side excursion of a somewhat detailed character to the British Museum and to certain archaeologists and ethnologists in England whose information and speculations must necessarily be drawn on. The Scandinavian scholars have the archaeology of their own region excellently well in hand, and their exhaustive acquaintance with the culture of later Germanic-Scandinavian paganism is likewise indispensable to a comprehensive survey of the question. Certain men and exhibits in Germany and Austria must also be seen and made use of, though this will presumably require less time and attention than the earlier and later stages in the proposed itinerary. The sites and exhibits of the Hallstatt and La Tene culture should also be visited, with more or less painstaking attention; and certain localities of northern Italy, marking one of the cultural areas that once in prehistoric times maintained trade relations with the Baltic, should likewise be seen and appreciated. There

are also Italian students in this field whose aid is expected to be of first-rate value, both in the ethnology and the archaeology of the case.

More detailed study as well as a greater allowance of time would necessarily be given to the several sites in the Aegean, with Crete as the central and most important point; where a somewhat protracted residence would be desirable if not indispensable, and from which excursions might profitably be made to Sicily, southeastern Asia Minor, Cyprus, and perhaps Transcaspia, as well as to several localities in the Aegean territory proper. These excursions outside of the Aegean lands seem, at this distance at least, less requisite than a residence of some months in Crete and the visits to Aegean sites supplementary to the study of Crete. The residence in the Aegean here spoken of, with the allowance of time which it would involve, is desirable in part on account of the very appreciable mass of printed material bearing on the case, and which could most expeditiously and effectively be acquired, assimilated, and checked by a person living within striking distance of the sites with which the descriptive material deals.

It is believed that, in point of time, the inquiry so had in view should advantageously consume not less than three years.

T. B. V.



## NEWS AND NOTES

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*Membership of the American Sociological Society.*—The new members received into the Society since the July issue and up to July 15 are as follows:

Altman, Leib, 1157 Forty-third St., Brooklyn, N.Y.  
Baker, Edith M., 507 South Euclid Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Bardes, Juliana, 3306 West Highland Blvd., Milwaukee, Wis.  
Barlow, Mrs. Carrie M., 916 West Eighty-fifth St., Chicago  
Clarke, D. R., All Saints Episcopal Church, 2931 Locust St., St. Louis, Mo.  
Costa-Foru, Xenia C., International House, University of Chicago, Chicago  
Geffen, Pauline F., School of Journalism, Columbia University, New York City  
George, James Hardin, 1210 Locust St., St. Louis, Mo.  
Harrington, Harry Franklin, 721 Emerson St., Evanston, Ill.  
Koplovitz, William C., 910 Buena Vista Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Lattimer, Gardner, 715 Marion Road, Columbus, Ohio  
LaViolette, Forrest E., 1414 East Fifty-ninth St., Chicago  
Lundgren, Brigadier V., 3620 Finney Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Maurer, Pearl, 420 Siegel St., Chicago  
Pomroy, Herbert, 1224 Dillon St., St. Louis, Mo.  
Ramsden, Mary E., 899 Waterloo St., London, Ont., Can.  
Rogler, Charles, University of Porto Rico, Rio Piedras, Porto Rico  
Schwartz, Louis A., 20226 Stratford Road, Detroit, Mich.  
Schwentker, Wm., 4167 Miami St., St. Louis, Mo.  
Stafford, S. Tanner, 4059a West Belle Place, St. Louis, Mo.  
Stern, Alfred W., 615 Crescent Ct., Highland Park, Ill.  
Stuyvesant, Elizabeth, 526 West 112th St., New York City  
Toole, H. M., 19 Neptune Ave., New Rochelle, N.Y.  
Tucker, Henry R., 408 Fairview Ave., Webster Groves, St. Louis, Mo.  
Waide, Martha, 903 South Parker Ave., McKinney, Tex.  
Weissman, Irving, 613 Locust St., St. Louis, Mo.  
Younge, Eva R., Social Research Laboratory, Biological Bldg., McGill University, Montreal, Can.  
Zeman, Josephine K., 1633 Austin Blvd., Cicero, Ill.

*American Sociological Society.*—The special summer meeting of the American Sociological Society, in co-operation with the Society for Social Research, was held in Chicago, June 26–29. There were slightly over two hundred registrations of members and visitors. The meeting was devoted

to a series of round-table discussions on the following subjects: Collective Behavior in the Depression; Experimental Social Psychology; Crime; The Family; The Community; Rural Sociology; Prediction and Forecasting; Graphic Presentation; Minimum Standards of Training in Research Techniques.

The discussion in the round table on Collective Behavior centered about basic economic changes and their effects on public attitudes. Specific attention was given to the psychology of relief, urban and rural restlessness, and differential responses to deprivation. Short papers were presented by Burdett Lewis (American Welfare Association), Frank H. Knight (University of Chicago), James H. Rodgers (Yale University), Royal E. Montgomery (Cornell University), James O. Babcock (University of Chicago), and Harry Stack Sullivan (New York), under the sponsorship of Harold D. Lasswell (University of Chicago).

One session was devoted to Experimental Social Psychology, under the chairmanship of Franklin H. Fearing (Northwestern University). Brief papers recording experimental studies on attitudes were given by L. L. Thurstone, H. B. Carlson, James M. Stalnaker, James P. Russell, Ruth Peterson, and Donald A. D. Boyer (all of the University of Chicago), and Ross Stagner (University of Wisconsin).

The group interested in the subject of crime centered their discussion on the statistical and ecological aspects of criminal behavior, and also discussed crime from the standpoint of personality and institutions. William F. Byron (Northwestern University) led the discussion, in which the chief contributors were C. C. Van Vechten, Jr. (University of Chicago), R. Clyde White (Indiana University), Andrew Theodore (Northwestern University), Donald Clemmer (Research Sociologist, Southern Illinois State Prison), Dr. Ben Reitman (Chicago), and Frank Smith (Chicago).

The round table on the Family, under the chairmanship of Ernest R. Mowrer (Northwestern University), centered its attention on the problems of divorce and marital adjustment. The chief aspects dealt with were the value of divorce statistics, the legal problem of divorce by mutual consent, and the prediction of success and failure in marriage. Papers were presented by Calvert L. Dedrick (University of Wisconsin), Charles R. Metzger (Indiana University), and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (University of Chicago).

In the round table on the Community the chief topics for consideration were population patterning in the metropolitan community, and nucleation of business subcenter development. Discussion was under the direc-

tion of R. D. McKenzie (University of Michigan). Reports were given by C. E. Batchelet (Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C.), H. J. Kaufmann (Detroit Board of Education), Charles S. Newcomb (University of Chicago), Earl S. Johnson (University of Chicago), Ernest Fisher (University of Michigan), Marvin L. Niehuss (University of Michigan), and Henry Babcock (William Babcock and Sons, Chicago).

The chief topics treated by the round table on Rural Sociology (Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University, chairman) were the sociology of the farm family, and the effect of direct action movements on farmers' organizations. Papers were presented by E. L. Kirkpatrick (University of Wisconsin), Charles E. Lively (Ohio State University), Carl C. Taylor (Raleigh, North Carolina), E. D. Tetreau (Ohio State University), and Ray E. Wakeley (Iowa State College).

The meetings of the round table on Prediction and Forecasting were given to the discussion of the possibilities and limitations of sociological prediction. Specific consideration was given to prediction of social movements, theft, success on parole, success or failure in marriage, followed by a general discussion of the future of prediction in sociology. The meetings were under the direction of Samuel A. Stouffer (University of Wisconsin). Papers were given by Selig Perlman (University of Wisconsin), Henry A. Peel (University of Wisconsin), Earl Holzinger (University of Chicago), Frank H. Knight (University of Chicago), William F. Ogburn (University of Chicago), Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. (University of Chicago), Clark Tibbitts (University of Michigan), and Lowell S. Selling (Institute for Juvenile Research, Chicago).

The meeting on Graphic Presentation was devoted to a discussion of the methods of presentation of statistical materials on charts and maps, with illustrations. The chairman was Howard W. Green (Cleveland Health Council). Reports were given by Charles S. Newcomb (University of Chicago), Roy Wenzlick (Real Estate Analysts, Inc., St. Louis), and J. C. Ellickson (University of Chicago).

The problem of professional training adequate for social research was taken up in the two meetings of the round table on Minimum Standards of Training in Research Techniques. Discussion centered chiefly on the content of courses for graduate students proposing to undertake social investigation. Papers were given by Samuel A. Stouffer (University of Wisconsin), Frederick F. Stephan (University of Pittsburgh), and by the chairman, Walter C. Reckless (Vanderbilt University).

*American Sociological Society: Section on Teaching Sociology.*—The report of the committee on the Study of the Introductory Course in Soci-

ology will appear in the September issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*. This report, which is the result of intensive investigation by the committee appointed in 1932, with Professor C. C. North as chairman and continued for the current year, should prove to be of exceptional interest to sociologists. It will provide the basis for special discussions at the annual meeting of the Society to be held in Philadelphia, December 27-30. Members who desire to purchase a copy of the issue containing the report should communicate with the editor of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*, New York University, New York City.

*Citizens' Councils for Constructive Economy.*—A series of fifteen radio broadcasts on "Constructive Economy in Government" are being presented from June 20 through September 26, Tuesday evenings, 7:15-7:45 eastern daylight-saving time, over a nation-wide network of the National Broadcasting Company. Copies of the talks may be obtained after delivery from the National Municipal League, 309 East Thirty-fourth Street, New York City.

*Committee on Government Statistics and Information Services.*—Jointly sponsored by the American Statistical Association and the Social Science Research Council, provided with an appropriation for one year of operations by the Rockefeller Foundation, and with its proffer of "immediate assistance and advice in the reorganization and improvement of the statistical and informational services of the federal government" accepted by the Secretaries of Agriculture, the Interior, Commerce and Labor, this Committee began active work in Washington early in June. It is designed, to an extent consistent with continuity, to be flexible in personnel and program. It is to be represented in Washington at all times with a working quorum of its membership, and with a staff adapted to the problems upon which it may be engaged. The membership during the summer quarter, as jointly designated by Mr. Robert T. Crane on behalf of the Council and Mr. Stuart A. Rice on behalf of the Association, consists of Edmund E. Day, chairman; Stuart A. Rice, acting chairman; Meredith B. Givens, executive secretary; Bryce M. Stewart, Morris A. Copeland, Willard L. Thorp, and William L. Crum.

The Committee is co-operating closely both with the established statistical agencies of the federal government and with the newer organizations which are being established under the agricultural and industrial recovery programs.

One of the first activities of the Committee was the preparation of an

extensive memorandum on "The Statistical Services of the Federal Government in Relation to the Recovery Program." Other early committee interests have related to the Federal Statistics Board, the Marketing News Service of the Department of Agriculture, certain activities of the Bureaus of Foreign and Domestic Commerce and the Bureau of Mines, the statistical and research program of the federal conservation work, and various statistical problems of the Department of Labor.

*The Harris Foundation.*—The Tenth Institute under the Norman Wait Harris Memorial Foundation held at the University of Chicago, June 19 to 29, 1933, dealt with "The Formation of Public Opinion in World-Politics." The public lectures will be published by the University of Chicago Press in the autumn. John W. Dafoe, managing editor of the *Winnipeg Free Press*, expounded the liberal view of public opinion as the essential basis of free government. Public opinion may be fickle and irrational, but, on the whole, he considered government safer if it allows freedom of expression and of the press and tolerates an organized opposition. Jules Auguste Sauerwein, foreign editor of *Paris Soir*, and reporter of numerous international conferences, interpreted public opinion as the common attitude of the group, exhibited in primitive or even animal societies, but in civilized communities often diverted from its natural course by special economic, political, or cultural interests and propaganda. Edgar Stern-Rubarth, editor of the Wolff Telegraphic Bureau of Berlin, writer on propaganda and promoter of the movement for European economic union, traced the history of political propaganda, its method through use of the slogan and symbol, and the influence of journalism. The World War propaganda of the principal belligerents was analyzed by Ralph H. Lutz, professor of history at Stanford University and director of the Hoover War Library. The final lecture was given by Harold Dwight Lasswell, associate professor of political science at the University of Chicago, and chairman of the Committee on Pressure Groups and Propaganda of the Social Science Research Council. He illustrated the methods of revolutionary propaganda from recent history and emphasized the significance of such propagandas as the process by which the basic ideologies of communities are changed.

Parallel with the public lectures, round tables were organized for the experts present. The cultivation of public opinion by foreign offices, by international institutions and conferences, by private organizations; the rôle of the foreign news correspondent, of radio, and of the moving pictures; the legal control and the scientific analysis of propaganda were

among the topics considered under such leaders as W. A. Robson, of the London School of Economics and Political Science; Chester Rowell, editor of the *San Francisco Chronicle*; Oscar Jaszi, of Oberlin College, formerly Minister of Minorities in Hungary; Frank Mason, vice-president of the National Broadcasting Company; Ivy Lee, public relations counsel; and the lecturers already referred to. John Dickinson, Assistant Secretary of Commerce, led the final round table on the Information Services of the Department of Commerce.

*International Institute of Sociology.*—The eleventh meeting of the International Institute of Sociology will be held at Geneva, Switzerland, October 16–22, 1933. Several American sociologists are listed to appear on the program.

*Municipal University of Akron.*—A Social Welfare Institute was held during the second semester under the auspices of the department of sociology. Mrs. Leona Stuart Areson, of Western Reserve University, was in general charge. Professor M. C. Elmer of the University of Pittsburgh participated in the program.

*Bryn Mawr College.*—Professor H. A. Miller has been appointed to the faculty as professor of sociology, to take the place of Professor Hornell Hart who is now on the faculty at Hartford Theological Seminary.

*University of Chicago.*—Professor E. W. Burgess is spending the summer in Moscow, where he is making additional studies of Russian family life.

Professor W. F. Ogburn has been appointed by General Hugh S. Johnson as administrator for the Consumer's Advisory Board under the National Recovery Administration. His work in Washington will continue until the autumn.

Professor Louis Wirth is giving courses during the summer at the University of Michigan.

*University of Cincinnati.*—Professor W. O. Brown will have leave of absence during the next year for study in South Africa. His place will be taken by Clarence E. Glick.

*Crane Junior College, Chicago.*—The College Press, Chicago, has recently published *Major Aspects of Personality* by Maurice H. Krout.

*University of Denver.*—The department of social work of the Graduate School of the University of Denver is now a member of the American

Association of Schools of Professional Social Work, formal action having been taken at the meeting in Detroit in June. The department was organized in January, 1931, and now offers a two-year course leading to the Master of Arts degree. The curriculum includes courses in social case work, essentials of medicine, law, public-welfare administration, psychiatry, community organization, history of social work, methods of social investigation, child welfare, etc. Field work in family, children's, and psychiatric agencies is conducted under the supervision of members of the faculty of the University, and each student secures some practice in social research within the field of public welfare and social work.

*Duke University.*—The Duke University Press announce the publication early in the fall of a volume by Professor Charles A. Ellwood on *Methods in Sociology—A Critical Study*. Professor Howard E. Jensen of the department of sociology of Duke University will contribute an introduction of some twenty pages.

The *Rivista di Sociologia*, edited by Sincero Rugarli, and the *Archives de Sociologie*, edited by Professor G. L. Duprat of the University of Geneva, and Secretary General of the International Institute of Sociology, have combined. Among the names of the collaborators are those of Professor Bogardus of the University of Southern California and Professor Ellwood of Duke University. Professor Ellwood contributes to the March-April issue a paper on "A Scientific Method Adequate for Sociological Prediction," which will be presented to the International Congress of Sociology which meets in Geneva next October.

*University of Iowa.*—McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., announce the publication of *Introduction to Sociology* by E. B. Reuter, professor of sociology, and C. W. Hart, associate professor of sociology.

*University of Kansas.*—Carroll D. Clark, formerly associate professor and acting chairman, has been promoted to the rank of professor and chairman of the department of sociology.

*University of Missouri.*—Dr. L. Guy Brown, formerly at the University of Ohio, has been appointed for the summer to give instruction in social work in the department of rural sociology and to conduct research in rural and community organization.

*University of Nebraska.*—Professor J. O. Hertzler of the University of Nebraska is exchanging places during the summer session with Professor W. Rex Crawford of the University of Pennsylvania.

*North Carolina State College.*—Ronald Press Co. announce the publication of *Culture and Human Behavior* by Sanford Winston, professor of sociology.

*University of Pennsylvania.*—Professor Stuart A. Rice has been appointed acting chairman of the Committee on Government Statistics and Information Services, Washington, D.C.

*University of Rochester.*—Dr. C. Luther Fry has been appointed as chairman of the department of sociology at the University of Rochester.

*Temple University.*—J. S. Burgess, formerly of Pomona College, has been appointed as professor and chairman of the department of sociology.

*University of Virginia.*—The seventh session of the Institute of Public Affairs was held at the University of Virginia, July 2-15, 1933. The program included round-table conferences on the following topics: American Policy in the Far East, the Country Church and Agriculture, County Government, Finance and Banking, Our Latin-American Relations, the Relation of the United States with the League of Nations, Religious Education, Unemployment Insurance.

*Westminster College.*—Dr. Franc Lewis McCluer, professor of sociology and economics, has been appointed president of the college.

Dr. E. J. Webster, of the University of Chicago, has accepted the appointment as professor of sociology and economics in place of President McCluer.

*William Jewell College.*—Professor William C. Smith of Texas Christian University is teaching courses in sociology during the summer quarter.

*University of Wisconsin.*—The American Book Company announce the inauguration of a new series of text and reference books in sociology, "American Sociology Series," under the general editorship of Kimball Young, professor of sociology, University of Wisconsin. The first publications, a textbook on *The Community and Society* and a textbook on *Current Social Problems*, are scheduled to appear during the summer of 1933.



## BOOK REVIEWS

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*Introductory Sociology.* By CHARLES HORTON COOLEY, ROBERT COOLEY ANGELL, and LOWELL JUILLIARD CARR. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. Pp. xiv+516. \$3.50.

This new textbook for introductory college courses is the expression of an impulse similar to those that have inspired at least three other textbooks in sociology that have been published within the past five years—the impulse to present the important contributions of one of the great masters of the science in a form suitable for the use of beginners. In the present case, however, the method of presentation of the contributions of the great men, whose name appears as senior author, involves a more radical dependence upon his writings on the part of the junior authors than has been observable in any previously published book of this genus. According to the frank statement of the junior authors in their Preface, “Professor Cooley actually wrote almost half the sentences in this book and contributed much more than half the ideas!” In other words, the book which has actually been prepared in its present form since the death of Professor Cooley, incorporates the maximum of Cooley's own words, chiefly from his *Human Nature and the Social Order* and *Social Organization*, which the junior authors deemed it practicable to use in this way.

The result is very much what anyone who is familiar with the writings of Cooley might expect—a textbook strong on the psychological side, frankly using a subjective or introspective approach to sociological problems, and handling topics which lend themselves well to that approach in an extremely illuminating manner. Angell and Carr have skilfully added and interpolated a number of chapters dealing with the biological, geographical, and ecological topics commonly dealt with in introductory sociology courses. The work of knitting these parts, which might be regarded as fragments, into a unified and coherent treatise has been well done, on the whole, though one feels a degree of unevenness in the treatment as one turns from one chapter to the next. The book can be highly recommended to any instructor of college classes who welcomes the subjective or introspective approach so familiar to Cooley's readers.

There is a modest chapter-by-chapter Bibliography of references for wider reading collected at the end of the volume, and a short list of questions is appended to each chapter. Not the least intriguing feature of the

Bibliography is the use of references to all the chapters but one of *Recent Social Trends*. If the publishers' project for reprinting the latter work in one volume at a price compatible with student use for textbook purposes should materialize, a substantial course running, say, throughout the academic year might be given on the foundation of the Cooley-Angell-Carr textbook and the larger fact-finding volume. In any case, it is likely that this textbook will be quite favorably received and widely adopted.

FLOYD N. HOUSE

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

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*Liberalism in the South.* By VIRGINIUS DABNEY. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1932. Pp. xix+456. \$3.50.

This historical survey of liberal movements in the southern states is descriptive rather than analytical and is especially valuable because of its wealth of concrete material. The fields covered are politics, religion, education, race relations, industry, literature, journalism, and emancipation of women. The treatment is chronological and extends from the time of Jefferson to the present day. Of greatest interest to the sociologist are the chapters setting forth southern attitudes toward slavery and the Negro problem, industrial conflicts, political demagoguery, and religious orthodoxy. The author, who is a southerner by birth and training, presents with evident pride the achievements of notable, liberal leaders, but at the same time is sharply critical of reactionary tendencies and does not mince matters when describing the Scopes trial or the Scottsboro case. The chapters on "Darwin and the New Demonology" and "Twentieth Century Education" bring together in a striking manner the struggle in the South to develop higher education and scientific research in spite of the opposition of religious bigots and vested industrial interests. The book is journalistic in style, contains few citations to authorities, but bears evidence of careful workmanship and, in so far as the reviewer is able to judge, portrays accurately the events and movements selected for discussion. A valuable feature is a Bibliography covering more than three hundred titles.

J. F. STEINER

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

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*Vice in Chicago.* By WALTER C. RECKLESS. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xviii+314. \$3.00.

This is an extension of Professor Reckless' Doctor's dissertation (University of Chicago, 1925, *The Natural History of Vice Areas in Chicago*),

made possible through the co-operation of a number of sources not then available. The result is a highly factual study in a field where fiction and emotionalism are all too common. The text includes five spot maps together with fifty-six tables, and to this have been added as appendixes twenty-eight pages of tables detailing the various aspects of private agency, police, and court statistics relating to vice in Chicago in historical perspective.

Chicago closed its "red light" district in 1912, but it appears that between 1914 and 1925 the number of vice resorts increased at a considerably greater rate than the corresponding increase in population. The distribution of this activity into "natural vice areas" reflecting the pattern of growth of the city is clearly brought out. The interrelation of vice and commerce, crime, politics, commercial recreation, delinquency, disease, nationality and changing populations, etc., all receive intelligent factual treatment. The book concludes with a chapter on "Suppression and Control."

Vice reflects the same confusion of codes and values so characteristic of our civilization. Until society develops a consistent attitude toward sex activity, scientific "control" is largely out of the question. In the meantime this book contributes a valuable chapter in the factual description of vice and related problems in a modern American city.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

GEORGE B. VOLD

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*The Rise of the City, 1878-1898.* By ARTHUR MEIER SCHLESINGER.  
New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. xvi+494. \$4.00.

In spite of its title, this book is not a history of the city. Nor is the rise of the city the "major thesis . . . which integrates the book," as the editors avow in their Preface. It is true that urban growth was somewhat more rapid in the period covered than it was afterward, and it is also true that the book refers more generally to the urban than the rural phases of the period. But this does not make the book a history of the growth of the city. The city's rise is not even concentrated upon, much less explained. In fact, there is no serious presentation of any dominant theme at all. As Volume X of the series, "A History of American Life," the work is merely a cultural compendium of the years 1878-98.

But within these limits, Professor Schlesinger has executed another scholarly piece of social history. Casting his net wide, he takes up the city, women and the home, education and the press, science, letters and

arts, recreation, the church, society's wards. True to his emphasis on social history, he devotes but one chapter to political forces. Industry and enterprise only, of all the broad façades of society, are omitted, to be taken up in a companion volume being prepared by Ida Tarbell. For each of his chapters Professor Schlesinger has painstakingly canvassed a mass of pertinent data in official reports, in periodicals and newspapers, in secondary works, in biographies and travel accounts. His use of publishers' statistics as a means of gauging the effect of best sellers and the ideas they incorporate is a good bit of historical research. The work is replete with fresh factual details of this sort, with references and notes that will prove a blessing to future researchers, who would also do well to consult the essay on authorities which is the book's final chapter. With all of its exhaustive detail, the book seldom becomes drab, for the author knows well how to marshal the contents of *Puck* and *Judge*, how to make vivid the aesthetic horrors and the *bric-à-brac* of the home in the eighties and nineties, and how to portray the burlesque stage and the prize-fight ring in order to mirror the age.

The book whets the sociologist's desire for a truly generic story of the American city. Perhaps the accidental title selected by Professor Schlesinger together with his scholarly devotion to social history may yet inspire a work of this kind. The historian may then do with the city what Turner and his students did with the frontier. He may use it as a means of explaining the problems and the pace of American life in the post-frontier period of American history.

ALBERT LEPAWSKY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Unemployment Insurance in Belgium: A National Development of the Ghent and Liège Systems.* By CONSTANCE A. KIEHEL. New York: Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1932. Pp. xiv+509.

Since the commune of Ghent has given its name to one of the earliest forms of unemployment insurance, it is natural to look to Belgium in summarizing national experiences with the problem. This volume, fourth in the Industrial Relations Counselors' series, adds another type of national experience to those of the United States, Britain, and Switzerland already published. After a brief review of Belgian political and economic history and of general attempts at remedies for unemployment up until the time of the last war, the author devotes a chapter each to unemployment statistics and subsidized employment exchanges. There follow chapters on

the growth of unemployment benefit plans before 1914, communal funds and public aid before 1914, including the Ghent and Liège plans, and provisions of trade-union plans before 1914.

The war made it impossible for communes and trade-unions to provide unemployment insurance, and the Armistice brought unemployment. Therefore, in 1920 a permanent national system of unemployment insurance and a fund for unemployment relief were established by national order. The insurance form, an outgrowth of pre-war methods, and experience with insurance and relief are given with a wealth of detail. Appendixes contain important tables, regulations and royal orders concerning unemployment insurance and employment exchanges. There is an ample Bibliography. The volume adds substantially to our understanding of the operation of unemployment insurance.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

MOLLIE RAY CARROLL

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*Small Loan Legislation.* By DAVID J. GALLERT, WALTER S. HILBORN, and GEOFFREY MAY. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1933. Pp. 255. \$3.00.

The effort of Messrs. Gallert, Hilborn, and May in portraying the background and development of a portion of small loan legislation, with particular emphasis upon the work of the Russell Sage Foundation, is very thoughtful, as it is positive, but is singularly incurious as to the history of the field of small loans and the problems, legislative and otherwise, which confront it. As the work is concerned with something more than a tabulation of the present legal situation, a reader not fully informed might be very much misled by it, although he could find in it some value as a history of a past which is, however, past. The basic necessity today in the study of this class of legislation and its field is concerned with the purposes of loans, for how else can legislation be intelligently considered? In increasing proportion these loans can less and less be described as remedial.

The considerable development of the Morris Plan type of banking is barely touched upon, and yet this type of banking has already been incorporated in the machinery of some of the largest banks of the country which recently (and it is not the fault of the authors that they have not mentioned this, because it has occurred since publication) have been made eligible for membership in the Federal Reserve System.

If the authors were concerned only with legislation, they would have found considerable necessity for study both as to statute and court deci-

sion here. Above all, the authors have followed the lead of the Russell Sage Foundation in lack of ability to recognize and appreciate a development to which the introductory portions of their book should commit them; and that is the fact that everywhere, and particularly in the field of the 3.5 per cent a month loaners, with whose problems they are particularly obsessed, so much capital has been invited into the field that all the difficulties and shortcomings of other businesses during the period of inflation and now have developed, with the addition of special ones.

The 3.5 per cent a month loan by its terms is limited to \$300, and yet wherever examination has been made it has been found that by one device or another simultaneous duplication in an alarming proportion of the total is permitted and even encouraged. Cases have developed where ten such loans have been found to exist simultaneously. The fact that the loan is advertised at 3.5 per cent a month rather than 42 per cent a year would indicate—and certainly this is the viewpoint of social students—that the loan should not prevail for a long period of time. And yet there have been heavy advertising campaigns advertising loans for thirty months, and there has grown to be a somewhat standardized practice in making these loans for twenty months, supported by advertising urging people to buy bargains. The mere statement of this proposition is enough to indicate not only that the loans are not remedial, but that they are in increasing proportion socially and economically harmful. Any reasonably thoughtful man on the street who looks at the volume of advertising, who listens to the radio and hears the hired propagandists, can get a clear picture of this situation.

The competent student concerned with small loan legislation would be compelled to make some inquiry into the heavy costs for the procurement of business, the heavy overhead of overexpanded organization, and the cost of financing, including stock-exchange operation. The necessary costs of one of the most powerful lobbies in the United States would also be of significance. Legislation must take cognizance of realities. These inquiries should not be unsympathetic, for there are essential problems in the business. But they are demanded in any consideration of small loan legislation. Such inquiries would not be fruitful except as a proportion were made in other fields of small loans.

The time for such a book as the above, despite the respect one must feel for its authors, is past, and the book is obsolete, just as the overdevotion of the Russell Sage Foundation to a formula needs re-examination.

WILLOUGHBY G. WALLING

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*Hollow Folk.* By MANDEL SHERMAN and THOMAS R. HENRY. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1933. Pp. viii+215. \$2.00.

The Hollow Folk studied here are the isolated mountaineers of the Blue Ridge in Virginia. In their mile-high corner, completely cut off from the rest of the world, these people have a culture so different from our own that they appear degenerate and almost unintelligible to the outsider. Although the inhabitants are of our own race, theirs is a primitive culture. A complete understanding of such cultures provides a laboratory for the study of numerous important problems of human nature and personality. Armed with "form boards, pennies, chewing gum, plugs of tobacco, stacks of intelligence tests, notebooks . . . ," the investigators set forth to gain this understanding. Considering the time and energy spent it is not certain that they succeeded. The result is a book more interesting than valuable, for apparently the techniques for bridging the language and cultural differences were lacking. In view of the abundant literature on ethnographic method there seems to be little justification for this. The "form board" approach, no matter how refined, is unlikely ever to reveal the mentality of people of other cultural backgrounds. The investigator must take into account his relation to the people studied, he must gain insight into their interests, their frameworks of thought, to a much greater extent than was done here.

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

BROWN UNIVERSITY

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*Crime and Criminals.* By WILLIAM A. WHITE. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1933. Pp. viii+276.

This book will interest the criminologist as presenting the viewpoint of an eminent psychiatrist with reference to crime and its treatment. It is a plea for the scientific versus the emotional or the traditionally legalistic approach. In it crime is viewed as a form of mental disorder—a regression of man to primitive motivations. All human behavior is rooted fundamentally in the food and sex instincts with the accompanying major emotions of hate and love. These emotions are ordinarily held in check by "two walls of prohibition: one outside of himself represented by the mores; one within himself represented by the introjected social traditions which have been erected into the structure of the super-ego." Between the instinctive drives and social prohibitions there is often conflict. If the drives are too strong or the control of the individual too weak and he is

frustrated in his search for success and happiness, he can turn from socially approved paths only "in the direction of those experiences which have served him so well in some time in his historical past." All of this is consistent with the concepts of determinism, of the primarily emotional genesis of behavior, of the rôle of the unconscious as the historical past of the individual active in the present, and of psychogenesis with its social and psychological factors and its distorting mechanisms including rationalization, displacement, projection, and symbolization. Being similarly motivated, the criminal is not fundamentally different from the non-criminal, and all men are alike liable to psychosis and to crime.

In such a view, responsibility becomes but a "legal fiction," dependent in each case upon the emotional reaction of the jury to the criminal. But all criminals in different degrees also experience the emotion of guilt. This unpleasant emotion is the only "just" punishment, and it may not be escaped. Beyond this, punishment is not justified, and the demand for it in the interest of social protection or reformation seems ineffective and insincere. Nevertheless, criminals, like the physically and mentally ill, at times require removal from society. If we treat them thus like the sick people they are, we shall also presumably take much of the heroics out of criminal behavior.

Though lacking in adequate analysis of the social situations leading to crime, this psychiatric approach seems to the reviewer in no way inconsistent with the viewpoint of the sociologist. It seems neither more nor less inadequate than many sociological approaches. The book also lacks factual evidence, but it was not intended as an elaboration of research data, but as a statement of a viewpoint. As such it succeeds admirably.

DONALD R. TAFT

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

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*Plans for City Police Jails and Village Lockups.* By HASTINGS H. HART. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1932. Pp. 27. \$1.50.

With this book Dr. Hart closed his long life of eighty years. For most of that lifetime he was active in the study of penal institutions. During the earlier part of his professional life he was interested in the wide-range public social work represented by a state board of control. From 1883 to 1898 he was secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Control, having charge of all the state institutions of that commonwealth and having the supervision of many of the private institutions. For the next ten years he



was in the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. Because of his outstanding work there he was called to the Russell Sage Foundation as the head of its Child Helping Department in 1909. From 1909 to 1924 he was at the head of that department. Then he became the Foundation's consultant in delinquency and penology.

In spite of the many years of his life devoted to child welfare he retained his interest in prisons and jails first aroused during his work as secretary of the State Board of Control in Minnesota. Over thirty years ago he had drawn up a plan for a safe, clean, and economical jail or lockup for the smaller places. As chairman of the Advisory Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole of the National Committee on Law Observance and Enforcement he made an extensive study of police jails and village lockups in the United States. He ascertained that there are about 11,000 of these institutions, outnumbering all other prisons and jails three to one.

This volume gives drawings and plans of model city police jails and village lockups. There is sufficient discussion to enable those considering the erection of such buildings to judge of the reasons for the provisions made in the plans. The Milwaukee Public Safety Building provides the example for a police station for a metropolitan city. Since Dr. Hart was unable to find anywhere a model police station for a medium-sized city, he and a New York firm of experienced prison architects drew up an ideal plan. Likewise for a smaller city with a population from 2,500 to 25,000. The plan for a small village lockup was based upon the original plan Dr. Hart made for Minnesota villages many years ago, with modifications based upon experience and observations made over three decades.

With this book available there is no excuse for city and village authorities to build any more monstrosities to take care of that class of the population who fall into the hands of the police. Since more people experience the police station than any other institution in our penal and corrective system, it is important that attention be given to the construction of such buildings. Would it were as easy to provide plans and specifications with respect to the personnel manning these institutions as for the physical plant. And in what a happy state we should be, were it as easy to get cities and villages to secure the proper personnel as it is to get them to adopt good plans for the architectural part of the institution, hard as even that may be in many cases.

J. L. GILLIN

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

*A Working Manual for Juvenile Court Officers.* By RALPH J. RILEY. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. x+122. \$2.50.

This book is precisely what it purports to be, a working manual for juvenile court officers, with special reference to Cook County, Illinois. No attempt is made to treat the task of probationers elaborately, but specialized information is given as to the procedure in bringing children before the court, the basis of securing custody of child, the methods of serving notice, the judicial determination—in trial. Vital questions as to what constitutes delinquency, dependency, unfitness of parents, abandonment, desertion, the procedure in adoption cases, etc., are discussed briefly but to the point with the legal definitions, citations, and court rulings. Certainly every probation officer or social worker connected with the juvenile court in Chicago should find the manual an indispensable aid, as will students preparing for civil service examinations for such posts. In addition, every social worker whose cases involve children—and whose do not—will welcome this practical analysis of what steps should be taken to get John or Mary out of an undesirable home, and what limitations the law imposes in limiting both rights of parents and officers of the court. In the Appendix the Juvenile Court Act, the mother's aid law, and legislation with reference to training schools, illegitimacy, truancy, and feeble-mindedness are available for handy reference. One might wish that there were some analysis of the social limitations of the present set-up, but that has not been the author's task.

MABEL A. ELLIOTT

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

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*Juvenile Delinquency.* By WALTER C. RECKLESS and MAPHEUS SMITH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932. Pp. 412. \$3.50.

This highly compendious work by sociologists at Vanderbilt and the University of Kansas is a significant source book. It deals with statistics of juvenile offenders and their disposition, with physical and mental traits, social backgrounds, school maladjustments, and studies of causations. From the treatment standpoint, juvenile court, institutional care, clinical studies, and preventive programs are surveyed. In an appendix of nearly fifty pages excerpts are given from three cases, two of them from Shaw's publications.

The book as a whole represents fair-minded presentation of a huge number of factual statements gleaned from the literature which is abundantly and probably quite accurately cited. As such it should prove in-

valuable for classes in sociology which deal with delinquency. The authors make no pretense to be workers in the field, they give little or no evidence of having any pet theories, nor are they especially critical. On the other hand, they have shown a great deal of good sense in picking out from many publications essential research conclusions.

WILLIAM HEALY

JUDGE BAKER FOUNDATION  
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

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*Convicting the Innocent, Errors of Criminal Justice.* By EDWIN M. BORCHARD. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1932. Pp. xxix + 421. \$3.75.

Professor Borchard has described sixty-five of a large number of cases where innocent persons were convicted of crime. Twenty-nine of these cases were for murder; twenty-three for robbery, swindling, or larceny. Innocence was eventually proved by the reappearance of the alleged "murdered" person, by the subsequent conviction of the real culprit, by evidence that no crime had actually been committed, or in other ways. Among the principal causes for these errors were identification of the accused by the victim of a crime of violence in twenty-nine of these convictions, mistaken interpretation of circumstantial evidence, mistakes of the prosecution mainly in order to enhance the prestige of the prosecutor, the unreliability of so-called "expert" evidence partly because it is partisan, and the fact that most of the accused were poor and could not afford adequate defense. The author advocates public defense, which was first proposed in this country by the present reviewer in 1905, scientific tests of the accuracy of testimony, and various other means to prevent erroneous convictions; and indemnification by the state for the victims of errors of criminal justice.

MAURICE PARMELEE

NEW YORK CITY

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*L'Essor de l'Europe (XI<sup>e</sup>-XIII<sup>e</sup> siècles).* By LOUIS HALPHEN. Paris: Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. 609. Fr. 60.

This is the sixth volume of "Peuples et civilisations," the new general history now in course of publication in France. Its author, who is one of the editors of the series, has also written the fifth volume (*Les Barbares*) and part of the seventh (*La Fin du Moyen Âge*). In his present contribution he covers the central period of the Middle Ages (*ca. 1000-ca. 1285*).

Some matters, it is true, which belong chronologically to the earlier era, apparently were reserved for treatment here, in order that the exposition of the topics under which they fall might be properly integrated. But while the narrative set forth in the preceding volume has thus been dovetailed, there is little or no repetition.

Almost the entire medieval world—from Ireland to Japan, and from India and Egypt to Central Asia and Russia—has been brought into view, the only omission of any consequence being that of the Scandinavian countries, an omission which, though it seems scarcely justified (cf. p. 570), is deliberate. Logically enough, the history of the peoples of the Occident forms the nucleus and larger part of the work; but the affairs of other medieval peoples have been accorded such measure of treatment as their relative importance for the general history of the age would seem to warrant, considerable space being given to the Byzantines, the Muslims, and, particularly, the Mongols. Moreover, the author by no means confines himself to the purely political side of the period; he may be said to deal with its social-economic, religious, and cultural phases approximately to the extent that might reasonably be expected in a *histoire générale*, as distinguished from a *Kulturgeschichte*. In the organization of his materials he manifests no little ingenuity; the various topics are skilfully devised, and their arrangement effectively brings out the major developments of the entire period as well as the several series of particular evolutions within it.

Resting on a basis of profound learning and fine critical discrimination, the volume is written in a clear, animated, even brilliant style, its literary qualities fully measuring up to its admirable scholarship. The chief value of the contribution probably lies in the capital synthesis and well-reasoned interpretation it offers of the era under survey. To M. Halphen, the high middle age marks that epoch in the evolution of society when the Occident, after long centuries of unequal struggle with invaders, at length "put s'affirmer comme la future souveraine du monde" (pp. 3-4); and when, besides, it evinced its triumph over barbarism by fashioning an essentially new civilization: "celaborieux effort de création, d'où notre Europe moderne est directement sortie" (p. 1).

The author's penetrating characterization of feudal society (pp. 3 ff.); his account of the economic, intellectual, and artistic "revolutions" of the twelfth century (pp. 79 ff.); his analysis of the means and agencies through which the papacy endeavored to control the life and thought of Western Christendom (pp. 309 ff.); his sociological comment on the Mongols and on the purport of their conquests (pp. 393 ff.); his description of

the social-political environment in which the thirteenth-century transition to capitalistic enterprise had its course (pp. 528 ff.)—these are some of the things contained in the book which the reviewer would judge likely to be of special interest to readers of this *Journal*.

Footnotes at the beginnings of the chapters and sections supply excellently annotated bibliographical references, covering not only works of a general character but also synthetic presentations of particular topics. It may be observed that, in referring (p. 201) to the (sociologically very valuable) *Memoirs of Usamah ibn-Munqidh*, M. Halphen cites Derembourg's now antiquated French translation without mentioning the recent English translations by P. K. Hitti (New York, 1929) and G. R. Potter (London, 1929), respectively; and that he overlooks (p. 7) the group of studies edited by Edgar Prestage under the title *Chivalry* (London, 1928).

EINAR JORANSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Revolt of the Masses*. By JOSÉ ORTEGA Y GASSET. New York: W. W. Norton, 1932. Pp. x+204.

Gasset believes that society is divided into the minority and the masses, into the noble and the vulgar, into the specially qualified and the not specially qualified. The correct ordering of society is one of rule by the minority, the noble, the specially qualified, and of obedience and docility on the part of the rest. In fact, "human society is always, whether it will or no, aristocratic by its very essence." Unfortunately, however, the masses, the vulgar, the not specially qualified, are assuming the functions and exercising the prerogatives of the rulers in all spheres of life, not only the political, but the social, the economic, the religious. This belief challenges the existence of the civilization which has been achieved on the basis of two principles inherent in nineteenth-century European life: liberal democracy and technical knowledge. On the basis of these two, the population of Europe has been triplicated within a century, and we have achieved the highest type of public life hitherto known. The mass man, not specially qualified, presumes to act without technical knowledge and without respect for liberal democracy. He does not recognize that his environment is not a "natural" one, but an artificial one based on the contributions of a small minority which must be preserved and guarded in order to prevent very possible regression.

This apparition of the mass man as a result of the very principles which he challenges makes apparent to Gasset that we must go beyond them. But the system we should imagine as superior to it "must preserve the

essence of these two principles." "To return to any form of existence inferior to that of the nineteenth century is suicidal." Neither Bolshevism nor Fascism, therefore, are acceptable solutions to the problem which the mass man raises, because they forsake liberalism and go back to mass action, to force and violence. Only by preserving its essential liberalism can Europe supersede it.

An evolving public life which does not slip backward is the search of the aristocratic liberal who is dissatisfied with the historical result of nineteenth-century social evolution and with the resultant lack of morality, of submission on the part of the masses. Europe cannot adopt the solutions of either America or Russia. "New peoples have no ideas." It can only save itself and stave off the seductive influences of the "Slavonic morality," which lies in the "five-year plan," by following through what the course of history shows to be part of a natural process and what contains a definitely "European morality": by furthering the construction of a united state of Europe. And so the protest against the rise of the mass man to great social power eventuates in an appeal for the furtherance, in Europe, at least, of the historical evolution of political society in accord with the Kantian concept of that evolution, from smaller group to national state, and then to international community.

Apparent at once is the fact that Gasset reflects a deeply rooted acceptance of liberalism, democracy, and science as essential elements in an evolved social order. With his liberalism comes a belief in the right of the individual personality for full development and a concomitant belief in the inequality of man which makes aristocracy essential to society.

One feels that this protest of an aristocratic liberal is motivated quite as much by the irritations which a sensitive nobleman would experience at the uncouthness of a "mass-man" as by his liberalism.

Gasset's work calls for a much more serious criticism than that of exaggeration. It leads to doubting the disinterestedness and depth of his analysis. It suggests that the "superior persons" of whom he is so sympathetic are in fact the old nobility or intelligentsia, not the leaders of the newly emerging élite of whom he appears to be unaware. Recent studies of mass psychology lend further reason to doubt the wholesale discrediting of the masses in revolt or the charge that they are unmoral or that they are leaderless.

The book is well worth the time its perusal will take. But it must be seen as a protest rather than as a scientific analysis.

H. COHEN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*What Should Be Done—Now: A Memorandum on the World Situation.* By H. G. WELLS. New York: John Day Co., 1932. Pp. 29. \$0.25.

Mr. H. G. Wells has been guilty of so many fat and tiresome tomes that his appearance as a pamphleteer is a relief. This performance (No. 14 of the "John Day Pamphlets") advocates regulated inflation, large-scale public employment and collective buying, a readjustment of tariffs and progressive disarmament. It is not a very important pamphlet, but pamphlets as such are important to the sociologist. They are one of the most notable symptoms of revolution as well as one of the most powerful revolutionary instruments. The Communist Manifesto is a pamphlet and so is the Gospel according to St. Luke. So far as revolutionary pamphlets are concerned their function is to simplify and clarify the objective of a confused and inchoate group. They give form and body to the ideas of the great unprinting masses—the people who read and think, but do not write. A pamphlet which uncovers and brings into view a long-time trend of public opinion is a social force of real magnitude. Most popular pamphlets are highly ephemeral because they deal with short-time phases or fashions of current thought. Pamphlets which are of decisive importance always appear at a relatively early stage of a revolutionary movement. This stage is technically known as the change of allegiance of the intellectuals. If western capitalism is now undergoing a revolution, it is too late for great pamphlets to appear. If, as seems likely, capitalism is merely being reorganized, pamphlets of the ephemeral sort may help in the process.

Probably the pamphlet has seen its best days. Newspapers and magazines have pre-empted the place it formerly held. The enormous output of the regular periodical press in all civilized countries has weakened the competitive power of the pamphlet, which has developed no agency for large-scale distribution to the multitude. Today it is used largely by individuals, and by groups too small or too weak financially to have an established periodical in their service. Blatchford's *Merrie England* did its work, but the Labor party's *Daily Herald* is a better mechanism of propaganda.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*The Significance of Sections in American History.* By FREDERICK JACKSON TURNER. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1933. Pp. ix+347. \$3.00.

To all except his students Professor Turner has been known as the exponent of the frontier process in American history. As this collection of twelve widely scattered essays and almost as many maps shows, the concept of the section was if anything even more important in Turner's thinking. By including the frontier as a "migratory section" the idea of the section is made equally dynamic and even more inclusive than that of the process by which peoples moved into new spaces. Declaring that the "significance of the section in American history is that it is the faint image of a European nation and that we need to re-examine our history in light of this fact," Turner carefully defined his terms and elaborated an objective methodology for the re-examination which he advocated. The essays outlined the rise and influence of a number of sections and subsections resulting from physical geography and the types of society which occupied these natural physiographic regions, modified them, and in turn were themselves modified by the new environment. By means of maps which correlated political, economic, and cultural with geographic and geologic data, Turner made some brilliant generalizations regarding the interrelation of sections and the processes by which national unity was won and maintained in spite of conflicts in sectional interest.

Turner thought that, in spite of the unifying forces of the machine age which seemed in many respects to be producing a homogeneous culture, sectionalism would continue to exert a profound influence. He pointed to the fact that in Europe such forces as transportation, expanding domestic commerce, and increasing population accentuated rather than diminished national rivalries. Conceiving the American section as the "shadowy image of the European nation," he argued that a comparable result might be expected in this country. Although aware of the modification of physical environment by changing types of economic production and other means of social control, Turner held that, whether capitalism or Bolshevism triumphed, the section would remain.

Although not a student of Marx, Turner recognized the existence of class conflicts and the profound if not basic influence of economic function on sectional interests. But he tended to identify class conflicts with sectional conflicts. While there is a substantial measure of truth in this identification, we need to know a good deal more about class differences and class antagonisms within given sections and subsections. Turner would



have welcomed such analyses; and when they are made it is likely that they will refine rather than undermine his concept of the section.

The essays show not only that Turner was a pioneer in advocating the *rapprochement* of history and geography, geology, demography, and economics but that he also invented and effectively used a sharp and objective technique for studying interrelations between physical geography and the political and cultural responses which it evoked.

SMITH COLLEGE

MERLE CURTI

*Les idées de Platon sur la condition de la femme au regard des traditions antiques.* By JEAN ITHURRIAGUE. Paris: J. Gamber, 1931. Pp. 161.

With the problems that are settled and those that are raised by the emancipation of women kept in the back of his head, our author here sets himself as a foreground task the clarification of Plato's philosophy of feminism. He discounts Aristotle's exposition and resulting attack upon Plato with reference to the rôle of women in society. But he represents the well-known ideas of Plato upon this subject as not so novel to the Athenians of his own time as they have been to many succeeding generations. Plato, thinks our author, was an eclectic who, himself clairvoyant of ideas that were moving toward expression, systematized and expressed what was relatively new but not too novel. It is fair to say that the chief significance of this thoughtful monograph lies not in its exposition of Plato but in its orientation of his thought in Grecian mores and ideology. What Plato said on this and other subjects the reader can get for himself, but it would take a researcher to find out what it meant in every case as determined by how it would be understood by those of his time and place. That women in general are inferior to men in general Plato acknowledges; but since they are so primarily as a result of defective education, Plato uses his acknowledgment of inferiority as a prize-pole for the same education for women as for men and for a better education for both women and men.

T. V. SMITH

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*James Stansfeld, a Victorian Champion of Sex Equality.* By J. L. HAMMOND and BARBARA HAMMOND. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1932. Pp. xiii+312.

This volume gives in interesting form, as Mr. and Mrs. Hammond always give, the record of a life devoted to public duty when that duty is called into painful and unpleasant pathways.

James Stansfeld, who was born in Halifax in 1820 and represented that constituency in Parliament for over thirty-five years, was an able member of Parliament, had much to do with the reorganization of the Local Government Board and the humanizing of the service to the destitute under the poor-law; with the progressive development of local government agencies, including those having to do with the public health in which in the middle quarter of the nineteenth century England was so deficient; and with the struggle between those who confused public morals and public health, and who sought to secure the latter by the subjection of helpless women to subhuman treatment and subconstitutional administration. His family were of the professional nonconformist group and he came naturally by liberal views of a somewhat radical character. He sympathized with the Chartists, was a friend of Mazzini, and wrote in behalf of Polish liberation.

His legislative history is significant for the political scientist. His capacity for negotiations and adjustment without compromise of principle makes his biography significant for the student who is anxious to learn how the community can be led from an older social order of authority to a newer social order of democratic participation. His life has perhaps special interest, however, for those who have been concerned for the clarifying of criminal-law procedure in the inferior courts, to which was intrusted, under the so-called Contagious Diseases acts, the responsibility for dealing with prostitutes, whose physical condition jeopardized the health of the army and navy, but whose contribution to the life of a community in which there were large numbers of celibate young men was thought by administrators and physicians to be a necessity. The great figure in the struggle to clarify the thought of the community on this offensive and painful subject was, of course, that of Josephine Butler, with whom James Stansfeld worked, and whose efforts he splendidly supplemented. That episode makes clear to the student the difference between the constitutional arrangements in Great Britain, where Parliament is all-powerful and yet there is a definite doctrine of subordination to Magna Charta, and where therefore a conflict between the Great Charter and the act of Parliament must be waged among the voters, so that the lack of constitutionality may be cured by a repeal, and the situation in the United States, where such an overlordship of legislative action is exercised by the court, and a constitutional amendment is found to be necessary in case such an issue is raised.

Stansfeld, although an early supporter of the equal suffrage cause, was not one of those from the beginning agreed in full with the objections to the Contagious Diseases acts voiced by Harriet Martineau, Josephine But-

ler, and the others who consistently maintained that sound health and sound morals could not be based upon the abuse of even the humblest and weakest members of the community and that practices offensive to the moral and aesthetic sense would eventually be found to be hostile to the health interest as well. Stansfeld was very unlike Stead, who likewise cooperated with Josephine Butler and who threw himself into the movement with such vehemence that he found himself in violation of the law and went to prison as a result; but Stansfeld's ability, honest conviction, and high intelligence with reference to governmental action rendered his services invaluable to the cause.

Besides the poor-law, the Contagious Diseases acts, the local government reform, including public health organization, he was deeply concerned for the relations of Great Britain to India and to Ireland; on the issue of home rule he broke with Gladstone.

The concluding chapter in the discussion of the costs and rewards of a career like that of James Stansfeld, who died in 1898, is extremely interesting. Especially American students of the problem will find the volume illuminating and sustaining.

S. P. BRECKINRIDGE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Religion and the Good Life.* By WILLIAM CLAYTON BOWER. New York: Abingdon Press, 1933. Pp. 231. \$2.00.

This is a popular discussion of religious education by the Professor of Religious Education of the University of Chicago. The author takes a functional view of religion both in personal experience and in social culture. He accepts unreservedly the sociological view of religion. He says (p. 62), "students of comparative religion have come to view religion as an inseparable aspect of the culture of the social group and as incapable of being understood apart from that cultural background." The reader naturally expects that with this view Professor Bower would discuss religious education both as a builder of personality and as a regenerator of human society. He chooses, however, to discuss only the former problem, though with the sociological principle that personality is the individual expression of culture; he should have discussed the part which religion plays in the building of cultures. Another criticism of the book is the narrow view which it takes of science. The author tells us "Science approaches reality in terms of the organization of matter and energy bound together

by a tissue of antecedent and consequent. The pattern which science imposes upon reality is that of a mechanism of closed systems" (p. 129). If this be so, it is hard to see how there can be any science of religion.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Ethical Relativity.* By EDWARD WESTERMARCK. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+301. \$3.75.

*Conflicts of Principle.* By ABBOTT LAWRENCE LOWELL. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1932. Pp. vi+161. \$1.50.

In his latest book Professor Edward Westermarck, one of the pioneers of sociology in the English-speaking world, comes out unequivocally in defense of ethical subjectivism. According to Westermarck, moral judgments are based wholly on emotions, and moral concepts are generalizations of emotional tendencies. They, therefore, have no objective value, and it is an error to speak of them as true or false. They are not judgments which are comparable to those of science. They are entirely relative to the culture in which they are made, and, Westermarck seems to argue, to the individual who makes them. There can be, therefore, no science of ethics in the sense of generalizations which have objective validity. There can be, indeed, no normative science of human conduct or relations.

This defense of ethical subjectivism by a sociologist of first rank will give aid and comfort to those who wish to divorce sociology entirely from ethics and to regard ethics as simply a realm of emotional judgments. No scientific student of human society would deny the emotional element in moral judgments. That would be as foolish as to deny the emotional element in all human relations. The question is, however, whether that emotional element is all there is to moral judgments, and whether it is necessarily arbitrary. Those who believe in a science of ethics, or the possibility of a normative science of human relations, will not be disturbed by the demonstration of a large subjective element in our judgment of those relations, for there is such an element in social relations themselves. Pure objectivism is impossible in the social sciences; but so also is pure subjectivism. By this very token, any defense of ethical subjectivism is bound to fail. Professor Westermarck should read Professor Bernard's *Transition to an Objective Standard of Social Control*. It would be a sufficient answer to his defense of ethical subjectivism.

President Lowell's book is unobjectionable from the standpoint of social science. It deals with the old theme of the relativity of moral principles,

a theme familiar to every student of sociology or anthropology. President Lowell's book consists simply of illustrations of the relativity of moral principles in the realms of economics, politics, law, education, and even religion. He does not touch upon the problem discussed by Professor Westermarck—whether this relativity is due simply to differences in emotions of those who make the moral judgments. Quite evidently, relativity of moral principles is capable of an entirely different explanation.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Studies in the Economics of the Bible.* By ELI GINZBERG. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America, 1932. Pp. 70. \$1.50.

This book, which the author describes as dealing with (1) slavery, (2) the Sabbatical Year, (3) the Jubilee Year, and (4) land proprietorship in early Hebraic and other society, is another indication of the growing scientific tendency to envisage the problem of general sociology in relation to the Bible.

The author says that he is not concerned to "evaluate the work of the higher critics," and that one has "cause to suspect the existence of certain very serious shortcomings in the philological approach to an interpretation of the Scriptures" (p. 7). While modern biblical criticism does have a great deal to do with philological and textual considerations, it cannot be spoken of in this way as if limited and restricted by its own technical apparatus. For the critics themselves, at an early stage of their work in the nineteenth century, came to realize that by reversing the orthodox formula, "The Law and the Prophets," to make it read "The Prophets and the Law," they had entered upon the task of reconstructing and reinterpreting history. And while no scientific explanation of Hebrew social development has yet come from the higher critics, one who is entering upon a study of biblical economics cannot justly dismiss the critics as mere philologists.

The various economic matters considered by the book are included in the so-called "Laws of Moses," which constitute the first division of the Old Testament or Hebrew Bible, and which, according to orthodoxy, were given to Israel by divine revelation in the desert of Sinai, prior to the settlement in Canaan. Accordingly, the author refers to the "laws" of slavery, of the Sabbatical Year, of the Jubilee Year, etc., as if they were substantive legislation. Yet he goes on to say, "The modern critics have, of course, and rightly so, found . . . convincing proof that the institution of the Sabbatical Year was not observed in pre-exilic times"—i.e.,

from the settlement in Canaan to the Babylonian exile (p. 50). Moreover, in speaking of the so-called law of jubilee, he says, "There is not an iota of evidence that the Jubilee was ever observed. . . . We must assume that the Jubilee never became a parcel of Jewish heritage" (p. 43).

Thus the author follows the conclusions of biblical higher criticism as if that form of investigation were something more than philology; and he admits that the so-called "laws" were not revealed as claimed by Judeo-Christian orthodoxy. He therefore assumes that his material is found in a series of documents, or "sources," emanating from different historical periods. But what becomes of a study in biblical economics when its "laws" (a) were not substantive legislation and (b) were not observed at any time? This is a question of methodology which has to be considered in advance before the material can be handled to the best effect. The author's nearest approach to it is found in his observation that the Jubilee Year was impractical because "the terrific disparity between the patrician land-owning class and the peasant debtor class had become too wide to bridge" (p. 13).

The book is well written and will be useful as a concrete advertisement of the general problem; but its utility is limited by its methodological shortcomings.

LOUIS WALLIS

NEW YORK CITY

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*Moral Man and Immoral Society.* By REINHOLD NIEBUHR. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xxv+284. \$2.00.

This is a sociological work and as such deserves the attention of sociologists, even though it calls itself "A Study in Ethics and Politics." All the principal problems of sociology are dealt with in one way or another by the author, though always with the ethical emphasis. If sciences are distinguished by their problems, it is only fair to classify books also by the problems with which they deal.

The attention of sociologists to this book is all the more imperative because of the errors which it makes in the field of sociology. Essentially the book is a conflict philosophy of human society. It repeats the errors of Machiavelli and Thomas Hobbes, without apparently knowing that these errors are those of the above gentlemen. However, no one would accuse the author of being deficient in scholarship. As one English reviewer has said, "this book is the substance of a hundred books," and we suspect that it will be cited by those who lean to the conflict theory of society for a hundred years to come.

The thesis of the book is that "a sharp distinction must be drawn between the moral behavior of individuals and of social groups, national, racial, and economic" (p. xi). In every human group, the author tells us, there is less reason to guide, less ability to comprehend, than in the individuals who compose the group. Truly moral behavior, therefore, is "more difficult if not impossible for human societies and social groups" (p. xi). Most sociologists, the author thinks, fail to recognize that social groups are incapable of acting according to reason and justice and so fail to see that relations between them can be adjusted only through coercion, force, or conflict. "Relations between groups must always be predominantly political rather than ethical, that is, they will be determined by the proportion of power which each group possesses" (p. xxiii). All moralists, whether religious or scientific, lack an understanding of the brutal behavior of all human collectives. They fail to understand that "society is in a perpetual state of war" (p. 19).

The religious and ethical application is, "The dream of perpetual peace and brotherhood for human society is one which will never be fully realized" (p. 21). "The demands of religious moralists that nations subject themselves to the 'law of Christ' is an unrealistic demand, and the hope that they will do so is a sentimental one" (p. 75). Social idealism thus receives a smashing blow from one of the leading religious leaders of our time.

Without trying to criticize the ethical conclusions reached, it may be pointed out that the sociological basis of these conclusions, namely, "the brutal character of all human collectives," is neither new nor sociologically sound. It was exploited a generation ago by Gustave LeBon. Probably the majority of sociologists today would say that there is no more inherent necessity of a group being immoral or brutal in its behavior than of individuals. Nearly all would say that the character of group behavior would depend upon the tradition of the group and upon group culture. It is regrettable that Professor Niebuhr did not inform himself more fully as to the scientific standing of various social theories.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Prospecting for Heaven. Some Conversations about Science and the Good Life.* By EDWIN R. EMBREE. New York: Viking Press, 1932. Pp. 185. \$1.75.

This is a report of alleged conversations regarding the relations of science and human values between Dr. C. M. Hincks, Dr. Victor G.

Heiser, Professor Charles H. Judd, Dr. Franz Alexander, Professor Howard W. Odum, Miss Margaret Sargent, and a mythical Chinese philosopher, Wu Ting. Dr. Embree reports these conversations, and the first five accept them as "conveying accurately some at least of our ideas as to possible scientific steps to the good life." Of especial value in the book is Professor Judd's masterly summing up of the viewpoint of his psychology. Interesting also is Professor Odum's statement of the viewpoint of modern social science, with its confession that "with the social studies, insight and interpretation are probably more important than that exact measurement which has been the essence of natural science."

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*The Negro's Church.* By BENJAMIN ELIJAH MAYS and JOSEPH WILLIAM NICHOLSON. New York: Institute of Social and Religious Research, 1933. Pp. xiii+321. \$2.00.

This is the first comprehensive survey of what is still considered the most important institution of the American Negro. Of the seventeen chapters, five bear directly on the rural church, while the remaining twelve include special reference to the minister, his message, membership in urban churches, buildings, program, worship activities, fellowship and community activities, and finance.

The sociologist will be especially interested in the extent to which the study emphasizes economic, social, and psychological factors that have contributed to the establishment and maintenance of churches for Negroes. The work is carefully done, and includes store-front and house churches as well as the established, conventional worship groups. Yet one who notes the stress placed on "The Message of the Minister" may think that, on the other hand, the part played by music, frenzy, and assent, even at this late date, is unduly minimized. Since this is a survey rather than a social psychological study, it does not make use of intimate documents which indicate the part the church plays in the lives of leaders and followers. Nor is an attempt made to portray the ceremony and ritual incident to the crises of life. The techniques used include observation, stenographic accounts, the interview, the questionnaire, the schedule, as well as the checking of records and reports.

The work gives tactful criticisms and suggestions for improvement. This is to be expected from writers who are trained ministers as well as investigators.

V. E. DANIEL

WILEY COLLEGE



*The Contribution of Religion to Social Work.* By REINHOLD NIEBUHR. New York: Columbia University Press, 1932. (New York School of Social Work Publications.) Pp. x+103. \$2.00.

The thesis of this stimulating little book, which represents the Forbes Lectures of the New York School of Social Work for 1930, is that religion creates a conscience which is quick to understand social need and ready to move toward its alleviation if not ready to work for its elimination. In working out that thesis Professor Niebuhr admits that religion is more fruitful of philanthropy than of social justice and ascribes its social conservatism to its sense of the absolute. A certain theology of determinism which would imply that God has ordained poverty for disciplinary purposes does not help matters nor has an old tradition of indiscriminate giving been serviceable. The author's underlying moral and social philosophy is revealed in his declaration that "moral sensitivity inevitably leads to pessimism. Only callous men can be consistent optimists. Social intelligence likewise leads to pessimism. Only ignorant men are optimists."

ARTHUR J. TODD

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*The Hague Court Reports* (2d ser.). By JAMES BROWN SCOTT (ed.). New York: Oxford University Press, 1932. Pp. xlvii+234. \$2.00.

The first series of *The Hague Court Reports* edited by Dr. Scott in 1916 reported fourteen awards and the conclusions of two commissions of inquiry given during the sixteen years preceding that date. The present volume reports four awards and one inquiry in the sixteen years following the first series. This measures the declining importance of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague established by the convention of 1899, a decline mainly due to the establishment of two new institutions—the League of Nations at Geneva and the Permanent Court of International Justice also at The Hague. The first of these has dealt with twenty-five political disputes since its institution in 1920, and the latter since the same date has given sixteen awards in litigated cases and twenty advisory opinions. The use of permanent institutions for pacific settlement has, therefore, increased since the war, but the use of the Permanent Court of Arbitration has declined. This decline is all the more notable when it is pointed out that in two of the cases here reported the agreement to arbitrate was concluded before the World War. In the other two, the United States, which is a member neither of the League of Nations nor of the Permanent Court of International Justice, was a party.

This book is mainly a compilation of texts, including the awards, reports, agreements to arbitrate, and, in addition, an excellent syllabus of each case prepared by the editor. In an introductory statement, the editor has also pointed out the significance from the standpoint of international law of these awards and has given a good statement of the difference between international arbitration and judicial settlement. He takes exception to the provision in the statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice that the parties may agree to allow the court to decide a case *aequo et bono*. Such a settlement, he thinks, should be reserved for arbitration and not permitted in an institution for judicial settlement.

The book is a useful collection of texts for international lawyers and indicates that great as have been the changes wrought by the World War in procedures of pacific settlement there is still a certain continuity. The Permanent Court of Arbitration, hailed by the peace advocates as an important advance in international organization when founded in 1899, has not been entirely, although in large measure, superseded.

QUINCY WRIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*International Politics: An Introduction to the Western State System.*

By FREDERICK L. SCHUMAN. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. xxi+922. \$4.00.

This volume, although vivid in style and vigorous in thought, is encyclopedic in scope. The first book outlines the origins and development of the state systems of Western civilization—from the city states and empires of antiquity to the capitalistic states of the modern world. Then the author surveys the forms of international relations—elements of public international law, practices of diplomacy, methods of settling disputes, and structures of international organizations. Book III examines the forces operating in international politics—the cult of the nation-state, patriotism and power, patriotism and profits, the quest for empire, the special tendencies of the great powers, and *Machtpolitik* in action. All this is essentially analytical and descriptive, although there is evident in the treatment a certain animus or philosophy of world-history. Professor Schuman is not a perfect adept in the latest literary subterfuge of allowing each story or selection of facts “to tell itself.”

At the close of the empirical or descriptive part comes a long survey of prospects. Professor Schuman has no delusions about anybody's powers of prevision, but he courageously undertakes to divine the future and

tell us how it seems to him. The world is clearly in a crisis or dilemma. Empiricists and reformers, saints and sinners, agree on this. Capitalism does not work well. International trade is in a bad way. Investments go sour. Subject peoples revolt against benevolent white men. Imperialism has not delivered the promised goods in the form of expanding markets. Nationalism flares up as lurid and threatening as ever, if not worse. The profit-makers who drive governments cannot get their profits. Capitalism cannot employ its laborers and keep them content. After years of propaganda, formula-making, and implementing pacts of one kind or another, the peacemakers find the world in turmoil in the Far East and on the verge of conflict in the West.

What is the way out? Professor Schuman sees two roads. One runs to the left, through international wars and domestic revolutions, to a communistic attempt to liquidate a bankrupt civilization incapable of organizing itself. This prospect is not entirely alluring. The road may lead to a better civilization or to a wreck of civilization beyond hope of repair—to a beginning somewhere near the bottom again. Professor Schuman does not share the optimism of those who imagine that from the flaming ruins of the past a utopia of world-brotherhood and economic prosperity for all will automatically arise. "This road," he says, "lies through the valley of the shadow, and none who still hope for peace and the triumph of reason can willingly accept it."

The alternative is the right road to world-unity, the road proposed by internationally minded conservatives, by reasonable and reasoning liberals, by the Socialists, and by the more advanced of the other bourgeois party groups. This is the way of international collaboration. It leads to Geneva. It involves a surrender of "power politics," the adoption of economic planning, and international government. Is it possible that reason can suppress greed and a sense of world-unity overcome the power politics of centuries? Professor Schuman is not certain. Toleration and collaboration may avert the clash between capitalism and communism, but the race between reason and hatred may go to the latter. At all events there is the challenge.

The text, heavy with facts and closely knit in argument, is lightened somewhat by appropriate quotations from *Alice in Wonderland* and the addresses of Calvin Coolidge. Academic formalists may be shocked by this appearance of frivolity, but the present reviewer is highly gratified to find both comedy and tragedy in the play. Man is a serio-comic animal and "scientific" political science, taking man as he actually is, must treat him as such. Professor Schuman is a pioneer in breaking from the solemn

formalities of abstract international law and politics and in daring to view realistically the moving scene as a whole and to present his interpretation of its choices to the judgment of mankind. The undersigned does not agree with the author on all points, as will become evident in a year or two, but he welcomes this thrusting, dynamic, ripping challenge to those who preside with feeble hopes over dust and ashes.

CHARLES A. BEARD

NEW MILFORD, CONNECTICUT

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*International Adjudications, Ancient and Modern: History and Documents, Together with Meditorial Reports, Advisory Opinions and the Decisions of Domestic Commissions on International Claims.* Edited by JOHN BASSETT MOORE. "Modern Series," Vols. I-IV. New York: Oxford University Press, 1929-31. Pp. cxiii+513, xiv+503, xxviii+564, xxvi+600. \$2.50 per volume.

Judge Moore began collecting the materials for this monumental work forty years ago and published portions of it—a record of arbitrations to which the United States was a party—in six large volumes in 1898. The present series, however, will extend this earlier publication, both extensively and intensively. The modern series, beginning with the arbitrations under the Jay Treaty in 1794, will cover all arbitrations chronologically since that date whatever states were parties, while the ancient series will give a similar treatment to all earlier arbitrations so far as the records disclose them, beginning with the ancient Greeks. The greater intensity of the present series is indicated by the fact that the three arbitrations under the Jay Treaty, covered by the four volumes under review in somewhat over two thousand pages, occupy only one hundred pages in Judge Moore's earlier publication. The present series, therefore, which will require seventy-five or more volumes before completed, will be the definitive history of "the judicial phase of international life." The term "adjudications" in the title was employed as being sufficiently broad to cover both arbitrations and judicial settlements. But the series is even broader than this, including, as it does, the reports of commissions which, not having a binding effect, are not strictly adjudications.

To the jurist the volumes will be an invaluable source of precedents for use in contemporary adjudications. To the sociologist the work is of interest because of the light it throws upon the attitude of an experienced and, to some extent, typical jurist toward the process of adjustments between

nations. Judge Moore's attitude is indicated in his Introduction and occasional comments. He emphasizes the importance of "exploring the records, unpublished as well as published, of human experience and systematizing and spreading the knowledge of what these records contain," and that "it is only in their historical and circumstantial setting that the individual significance and relative importance of judicial judgments can be correctly estimated." He believes, in short, that the judicial process can only be understood through pursuit of the historical method (I, vii and viii).

He also believes that to be effective the judicial process must be dominated by common sense rather than refined logic. He prefers "simple, direct, and inexpensive methods of attaining justice" as distinguished from "the methods of an acute, subtle, logical, finely discriminating, highly trained mind" (I, xxxiii and xxxiv).

Closely associated with this attitude is his insistence that law and the ethical intuitions of a community should be kept in close accord, "Legal justice aims at realizing moral justice within its range, and its strength largely consists in the general feeling that it is so" (I, xxiv).

Finally, note may be taken of a slightly veiled preference for the more flexible process of arbitration as opposed to the adjudication of disputes through a permanent tribunal, and this in spite of the fact that Judge Moore served for a number of years with distinction as a judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice. Judge Moore seems to feel a danger that a permanent court of technical lawyers will exalt logic above common sense and technicalities above moral intuition. At the same time, he insists that arbitration by judges selected by the parties after the case arises is a true judicial process. He unhesitatingly asserts on the basis of his extensive examination of the record of international arbitrations that he has "failed to discover support for the supposition that international arbitrators have shown a special tendency to compromise, or that they have failed to apply legal principles or to give weight to legal precedents" (I, lxxxix). This opinion, however, is based on the records of adjudications and the rationalizations of tribunals, buttressed by Judge Moore's personal experience. He does not discuss the psychological aspects of the judicial process behind the scenes. Will an umpire, anxious to escape the individual responsibility of deciding the case and beset by two arbitrators each appointed by one of the parties after consideration of his past views on the legal problems presented by the case, approach the question in the same way as a court of three judges none of whom has been appointed with any reference to the particular case? Competent observers, including

Secretary of State Root in his instructions to the American delegation at the second Hague Conference, have concluded that the first situation was likely to savor of negotiation rather than the application of law. In fact, it is worth noticing that the American agent reported the first of the arbitrations (St. Croix River boundary) in a private letter to the secretary of state, saying "You will be surprised to hear that it was rather effected by negotiation than by judicial determination" (II, 367). Judge Moore comments on this that such an attitude is natural to the advocate who does not gain his entire point and "was after all only an example of the necessary process of adjustment, of the weighing of one consideration against another, by which, in the presence of proofs concerning the effect of which opinions may inevitably differ, concurrent and just human judgments, judicial and otherwise, are daily reached." This, however, does not precisely reach the question of the psychological effect of the two processes upon the judges in leading them to give greater weight to compromise or to law, admitting that in any case both will play some part.

This, perhaps, is sufficient to indicate the interest which these volumes may have for students of social processes. Jurists will hope that Judge Moore's life may long be spared to complete this monumental series.

QUINCY WRIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Structure of Insanity.* By TRIGANT BURROW. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., 1932. Pp. 80. 2/6.

This is Burrow's latest effort to clarify for uninitiates the true inwardness of his esoteric doctrines. He has endeavored to describe a physiological basis or evidence for the conflict between verbalistic and conceptual or observer experience and the more immediate or autonomic or subjective-emotional experience. He speaks in almost apocalyptic terms of the utopia possible if only this cleavage were healed—if we could only return to a state of nature, of naïve social participation without "good," "bad," "self," and "other."

The writing is still cumbered and the meaning obscured by some screens of the very verbalism against which he protests. Certain unproved assumptions and certain idiosyncracies of terminology reappear. But one begins to see through a glass, darkly, and it is his clearest work so far.

THOMAS D. ELIOT

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

*Ability in Social and Racial Classes.* By ROLAND C. DAVIS. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+114.

*Order of Birth, Parent-Age, and Intelligence.* By L. L. THURSTONE and RICHARD L. JENKINS. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. xiii+135.

The nature of intelligence and the factors that determine the "capacity" of each individual are still to be discovered. Attacks on these questions are being made from various angles. Here are two attempts to get at a crucial test by means of a statistical analysis.

The method used by Davis was measurement of differences in speed of nerve conduction, speed of tapping, and electrical resistance of the body; and comparing extremes in the intelligence scale, i.e., college students and feeble-minded, Negro and white, children and adults, rural and urban, with reference to these measurements. The conclusion was that "... the investigation yielded . . . biological characteristics . . . that . . . vary with intelligence to a certain degree. It may be said to have been shown, therefore, that certain biological variations are advantageous for the possession of good intelligence." Even though the author cautions that "*biological* is not intended to be synonymous with *hereditary*," and that *intelligence* is defined as "that which the tests of intelligence measure" no such conclusion is justified. It is obviously fallacious to reason that, because such variation is found, biological differences have been shown to play a part in the *determination* of the intellectual level. No elaborate statistical procedures, no delicate measuring instruments, can make a result scientific in the face of such reasoning. Here is a perfect illustration that measurement alone does not constitute science.

The study by Thurstone and Jenkins is a careful statistical analysis of data collected at the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago. More cautious, these authors let the figures speak for themselves. Of these the most interesting are the figures showing the relation between birth-order and intelligence, indicating progressively higher intelligence averages for later-born children. Though the interpretation is uncertain, the alternatives are stated and the way is clear for further investigation.

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

BROWN UNIVERSITY

*À la recherche d'une politique indigène dans l'Ouest Africain.* By HENRI LABOURET. Paris: Editions du Comité de l'Afrique Française, 1931. Pp. 128.

In this brochure, M. Labouret, out of his long experience in West African colonial administration, presents his concepts of what a practical

program for the government of West Africa by European powers should be. Feeling that colonization is a historical necessity, and that the assumed isolation of Africa from the rest of the world is something not borne out in fact, he asserts that it is through the utilization of the position of the native chiefs that European control of the continent will proceed on a rational and equitable basis. He argues for the employment by the French of the traditional power and prestige of these chiefs in native social and legal affairs through the education of their sons, and asserts that by this method, and through an intelligent consideration for such customary usage as does not conflict with larger considerations of colonial policy, the African possessions of France may be governed with the most efficiency and least friction.

MELVILLE J. HERSKOVITS

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*Growth and Development of the Child.* Part I, *Several Considerations*, and Part IV, *Appraisalment of the Child*. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xviii + 377; xix + 344. \$3.00; \$2.75.

The labors of the Committee on Growth and Development of the White House Conference has now appeared in four significant volumes. Volume I deals with general factors that influence the growth and development of children from conception to maturity, such as interaction between heredity and environment; fraternal and identical twins; the factors influencing differences in human types; sleep and repose; fatigue; climate; relation of body mechanics to health, etc. While the reports focus largely upon normal growth, they also deal with obstacles to normal growth and development imposed by disease, social and economic circumstances, etc. Thirty-two authors contribute to this volume.

In Volume IV are assembled standards for the measurement and appraisalment of mental and physical status of children, and information that sheds light on such questions as the nature of genius, special gifts, and mental inferiority. The so-called intelligence tests are described and appraised. The authors hold that gifted children in general do not tend to deteriorate; that genius is not allied to degeneracy, and not so sporadic as is often considered. The sections dealing with the physical status include details for X-ray appraisalment of skeleton growth, and for conduct of complete physical examinations of children.

These studies, developed under the able chairmanship of Dr. Kenneth Blackfan of Harvard University, represent probably one of the most im-



portant results of the White House Conference. The presentations are by experts, authoritative and critical. Fads, foibles, and propaganda are mainly deleted. The numerous gaps in our knowledge of growth are also pointed out as future lines of research. These volumes, while primarily written by experts for experts, such as physicians, biological investigators, educators, psychologists, and sociologists, may also be pursued with profit by educated laymen who still retain a fair modicum of mental energy.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A. J. CARLSON

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*The School Health Program. Report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xx+400. \$2.75.

This volume in the "White House Conference series" is a collaboration on the part of some thirty-two authors, the separate reports dealing with medical, dental, nursing, nutrition services, social hygiene, physical education, health education in elementary and high schools, private and parochial schools, and in schools for Negro and Indian children. The surveys of the health services in the schools are probably the most useful material in the book. The parts dealing with health education in the schools suffer from generalities. It seems difficult to distil anything more fundamental from these parts than that health education should be directed toward establishing correct health habits in the youngsters, rather than providing an understanding of the human machine as a basis for individual rationalization of health habits on the part of the individual child. The establishment of correct health habits through preaching rather than through understanding appears to be the chimera pursued by many educators of today. The volume as a whole suffers from a plethora of words, as instanced in the introductory chapter "On the Philosophy of Education."

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A. J. CARLSON

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*Parent Education: A Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+354. \$2.50.

This volume is the co-operative work of the Subcommittee on Types of Parent Education, of the Committee on Family and Parent Education

of the White House Conference. The work has been done under the editorial direction of the chairman of the subcommittee, Sidonie M. Gruenberg, director of the Child Study Association of America. The volume undertakes to explain the social necessity for parent education, the underlying purposes of this form of education, the historical background of the parent-education movement, and outlines the types of parent education now most prominent in American efforts, including the methods employed. Sixty pages are given to theory and history, 150 to programs, the remainder to methods of work. It is the most comprehensive compendium of information of this type available. The theoretical material is highly important, too. The introductory chapter on "The Sociological Backgrounds of Family Life," by E. C. Lindeman, should be compulsory reading for all teachers today, whether in public or private schools, whether of children, young people, or adults.

JOSEPH K. HART

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY  
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

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*Secondary Education, Orientation and Program.* By HERBERT G. LULL. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1932. Pp. xvii+366.

According to Lull the classical tradition with its emphasis on the cultures of the past prevents adequate study of contemporary civilization. History, civics, and economics as now taught in high schools are "innocuous to the extreme."

He proposes that the constants of the high-school curriculum be reselected and reorganized to provide for social integration and that every elective be presented in its wider social bearings. It follows that every teacher in training must acquire a thorough understanding of the civilization in which he lives.

The essential elements of the argument are stated effectively in chapter vii, entitled "The Social Orientation of the Curriculum."

A. K. LOOMIS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Education on the Air: Third Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio.* Edited by JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY. Columbus: Ohio State University, 1932. Pp. vi+376. \$3.00.

This volume consists of thirty-seven talks on various aspects of the radio, together with reports of subsequent discussion. There are sections

dealing with "National Aspects," "Broadcasting Techniques," "Broadcasting in Schools," "Experimental Measures," and "Foreign Broadcasting."

The emphasis is placed on radio education, but the discussions touch upon almost every problem raised by the dramatic advent of the radio. Reactions to the educational possibilities of the radio range from almost religious fervor to mild skepticism.

The volume bears witness to increasing interest in the scientific study of radio education and of behavior in general as stimulated by the radio. For the sociologist thinking in terms of research the section of the book dealing with experimental measures is by far the most interesting. Evidence is presented showing that it is not hard to overestimate the actual influence of the radio. Research methods are discussed, however, which hint of a day when the gap between the sociology of the radio and the physics of the radio will be less marked than at the present time.

CLIFFORD KIRKPATRICK

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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*Developing Attitudes in Children: Proceedings of the Mid-West Conference of the Chicago Association for Child Study and Parent Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. 156. \$1.50.

Among the contributors to this symposium are Glenn Frank, Harry Elmer Barnes, Melville J. Herskovits, and Carleton Washburne. Hugh Hartshorne summarizes the results of his studies in the teaching of ethics. An abstract by Ruth C. Peterson of her study of the effect of motion pictures on social attitudes illustrates the inadequacy of the method used. Harry Gideonse demonstrates that so far increased knowledge of the learning process has enlarged the pressure exerted by dominant groups. The symposium as a whole justifies the provision of opportunities for bringing before parents and teachers the results of specialized studies in child psychology and in the major problems of social education.

BRUNO LASKER

YONKERS, NEW YORK

*The Initiation of Social Contacts by Preschool Children.* By ALMA PERRY BEAVER. New York: Teachers College Publications, Columbia University; Child Development Monograph No. 7, 1932. Pp. 66.

*Interrelations in the Behavior of Young Children.* By RUTH E. ARRINGTON. New York: Teachers College Publications, Columbia University; Child Development Monograph No. 8, 1932. Pp. xviii + 156.

These studies mark a definite stage in the development of an objective technique for the study of early life. A practical methodological tool has been shaped, its reliability tested, and tentative norms established for the phases of activity tapped. Many tempting categories were necessarily ruled out, to insure accurate recording; nevertheless, the findings throw light on a number of the central problems of human interaction.

Each of the authors studied forty children in the nursery schools of the Child Development Institute. Both tested the reliability of their techniques through simultaneous records made by paired observers, finding high agreement, with Pearsonian  $r$ 's ranging from .88 to .98. It is interesting to note that social contacts were about twice as frequent during the third as during the second year, while among the two-year-olds laughter was recorded in only 274 and crying in 142 out of a possible 9,000 five-second intervals. Clearly, overt emotional activity does not characterize the young child in the modern nursery-school situation.

RUTH PEARSON KOSHUK

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*The Handicapped Child. Report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. xxv + 452. \$3.00.

Nothing could be of greater popular appeal to bring home to the public the condition and the needs of the children of the land who are suffering under some infirmity or defect or handicap than the findings of that remarkably capable and earnest group which assembled in Washington in the fall of 1930 to participate in the third of the White House Conferences relating to child welfare, the present one being devoted to child health and protection. In the very name there is a dignity and an indication of the great importance of the theme that would not be possible through any other channel.

Most of the handicapped or "defective" classes are discussed in three different volumes in this series. If each class could have had a volume to itself, there would have been avoided no inconsiderable amount of duplication as well as possible confusion in the minds of the public due to the lumping together of all the mentally and physically handicapped. The problems of these several classes demand independent consideration. Each class differs from another to a greater degree than it differs from the general population, or from the normal child. This cannot be made clear to the public too soon or too insistently.

The problems of the several handicapped classes, with suggestions and programs for meeting them, are presented. Included are the deaf, with the hard of hearing; the blind, with the semi-sighted; the crippled; those suffering from internal disease (heart trouble, tuberculosis, hookworm, etc.); and the mentally deficient. A special section is given to vocational adjustments for the several groups—a matter that could perhaps have been better treated in connection with each of them. The general tendency toward joint consideration of these classes is illustrated in the tentative suggestion of the amalgamation of the different organizations concerned with the welfare of the deaf. Except for one or two, whose original calling into being is to be questioned, each has separate interests and functions; and the general cause of the deaf is advanced, rather than retarded, from their separate existence.

The treatment proposed for each of the classes is, on the whole, of common-sense nature, and is based on experimental and expert knowledge. Possibly there would have been gain if a uniform method of treatment had been followed, especially as to the condition of each class. In the sections on the mentally deficient child there is a lengthy discussion of mental problems, especially those of a psychiatric nature, which, while having some good points, is likely to be over the heads of many of the simpler folk for whom the volumes are primarily intended.

HARRY BEST

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

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*Organization for the Care of Handicapped Children. Report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xx+365.

In this volume there are presented the method and extent of organization of the various institutions and agencies for the several classes of handicapped children—the dependent, the neglected, the delinquent, the

physically handicapped, and the mentally handicapped. First are considered local (county or municipal) agencies and institutions; then state; and finally federal. With respect to each class there are historical sketches of the work down to the present, which are valuable and helpful. In the examination of what is at present being attempted there are critical analyses together with illustrations of the work of outstanding agencies. Practically all forms of organization have mention. While the agencies considered are for the most part public, the work of private ones receives more or less of attention, always with insistence upon public inspection thereof. How the different public bodies may make their work more effective, and how they may serve to educate the public as to their functions and as to the needs which call them into existence, together with the necessity of expert treatment of the problems presented, including the employment of trained workers, are given appropriate consideration. Especially valuable is the discussion of federal grants in aid, which are in general favored. The work could probably be condensed somewhat with advantage. Now and then there is "elaboration of the obvious," with some loss to the volume in consequence.

HARRY BEST

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

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*The Handicapped and the Gifted. Report of the Committee on Special Cases, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.*  
New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xvii+604. \$4.00.

The present volume could well have been shortened somewhat. There is too much detail. There is also too much negative criticism; not frequently enough are we advised as to just what practical steps are necessary for the improvement of conditions. The sections devoted to crippled children are probably the most satisfactory of all. Existing and proposed arrangements or provisions for them are set forth clearly, fully, and from all angles. In the sections with respect to the blind and the partially seeing there is one of the best treatments that we have of the latter group. In the following sections, or those concerned with the deaf and the hard of hearing, there is apt to be a little confusion at times as to just who are meant; the "deaf" ("deaf-mutes" and persons without hearing but with normal speech) and the hard of hearing should be carefully distinguished throughout. In the sections on the defective in speech (a class that most appropriately is given full recognition) most space is afforded to statistical tables showing how the numbers vary in different cities according to

school grades. Next are considered children with lowered vitality; the mentally retarded; and behavior problem children (this last class seeming to have inadequate treatment). Though the title of the volume includes the "gifted child," only a relatively few pages (not over 2 or 3 per cent of all) are given to it. There is confession that but little on the whole has been done for gifted children in our schools, but continued special provision for them is favored. There are also sections on the training of teachers for the handicapped classes, and on "organization, administration, and supervision."

HARRY BEST

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

*Farm and Village Housing. Final Report of the Committee on Farm and Village Housing of the President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership.* Washington, D.C., 1932. Pp. xviii + 293. \$1.15.

This report, prepared for the Committee by B. L. Melvin, covers the subject matter of all of the other committees of the Conference as it applies to rural communities. The chapters, each by different committeemen, include assembled information about rural housing, suggestions (chiefly economic and technological) for the home builder, suggested standards for construction and planning, and a bibliography. The recommendations stress the need of research. Good photographs and sketches are included. The book represents a good beginning on an important subject.

C. E. LIVELY

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

*A Demographic Study of Eight Oriental Villages Yet Largely Untouched by Western Culture.* By CARLE C. ZIMMERMAN and PHRA CHEDT VAIDHYAKARA. Rome: Instituto Poligrafico Dello Stato, 1932. Pp. 22.

The villages are in Siam. The major part of the study presents tables with explanations and conclusions on disease, physical defects, causes of death, and net fertility of the heads of households compared with the net fertility of their parents at the same ages in life. The lesser part is devoted to demographic characteristics of the peasant populations on different stages of the economic ladder. Among its conclusions are the hypotheses, now new of course, that the fertility and physical stamina of the upper

classes and middle classes respectively were greater than for the middle and lower classes. While aware of some of the uncertainties introduced into their data by relying on memory of the peasants, particularly with regard to diseases some time in the past, their sweeping inclusion of "the Orient" in their summary statements is disconcerting.

MAURICE T. PRICE

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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*The Valuation of Urban Real Estate.* By FREDERICK M. BABCOCK.  
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932. Pp. xi+593. \$5.00.

The debacle in urban real estate since 1929 and the collapse of the valuations on which real estate bonds with a face value of ten billion dollars were sold to the American public have called for a reappraisal of appraisal technique. This book is the most scholarly analysis that has yet appeared in response to this need, and its value is in no small degree due to the frank statement of the author at the outset that the appraisal of real estate, involving as it does prophecies of coming events, is not an exact science but the formulation of a series of probabilities. Various methods of estimating the future net income of different types of real estate are ably discussed and illustrated by cases drawn from actual experience, but the author has not introduced any charts or tables showing the history of the specific movement of rents, operating costs, or land values in any typical city. If studies in the broader field of the general business cycle furnish any guide to the method to be employed in regard to real estate phenomena, the past behavior of urban rents and operating expenses should furnish a valuable clue to their probable future fluctuations. The task of making factual studies covering many types of property for long periods of time in many cities may be an arduous one, but it would seem to be necessary to lay the foundation for further advances in the theory of real estate valuation.

HOMER HOYT

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*The Family and Its Relationships.* By ERNEST R. GROVES, EDNA L. SKINNER, and SADIE J. SWENSON. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1932. Pp. xii+321.

This book is intended for the use of "pupils in their later teens," but its content, from the point of view of difficulty, is better adapted to the grade or junior high school. The senior high and junior college students are able to master the elements of solid geometry, college algebra, physics,



the classic English literature, and other subject matters of comparable difficulty. There is no reason why the social science subject matter should not be on a similar intellectual level.

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

E. B. REUTER

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*Primitive Secret Societies.* By HUTTON WEBSTER. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xiii + 243. \$3.00.

The first edition appeared in 1908. "For the present edition some corrections have been made in the text and the notes, several quotations in foreign languages have been translated into English, and the index has been considerably enlarged. Otherwise the book remains in its original form." An interesting study of secret societies among primitive peoples.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

LESLIE A. WHITE

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*Crippled Children: Their Treatment and Orthopedic Nursing.* By EARL D. MCBRIDE. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1931. Pp. 280. \$3.50.

This compendium is intended as a guide for nurses, social service workers, and parents interested in the care and treatment of crippled children. The nurse is instructed in the use of various instruments and appliances which are employed in the treatment of orthopedic cases, and also in the technique which is practiced in surgical operations on crippled children. The nurse is told what to do in emergencies that may arise and how to care for the patient so as to make him comfortable and carry out the surgeon's instructions for the restoration of the patients and for post-operative treatment.

The field is satisfactorily treated for a popular book of this kind. Infantile paralysis, birth paralysis, tuberculosis of spine, bones, and joints, and the treatment of rickets and other subjects are considered concisely and pointedly. A glossary which defines the most frequently used orthopedic terms is appended.

The book is simply and concisely written, well illustrated, and should be a valuable manual for the nurse, social worker, and parents interested in the welfare of the crippled child.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

ISAAC ABT

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*The Hutterian Brethren: A Story of Martyrdom and Loyalty.* By JOHN HORSCH. Goshen, Indiana: Mennonite Historical Society, 1931. Pp. xxi + 168. \$2.00.

The Hutterites, a communistic religious sect, originated in Moravia, 1528, one of the developments of the Anabaptist movement. Centuries of martyrdom and suffering preceded their migration to America in 1875. About 3,500 are now located in Western Canada and South Dakota, where "community of goods"

continues the chief social organization. They refuse to take oaths, go to war, or hold public offices. The method of treatment is chiefly descriptive, occasionally evaluative, and generously interspersed with source materials.

FORREST L. WELLER

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*The Origin of the Griselda Story.* By DUDLEY DAVID GRIFFITH. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1931. Pp. 120.

The Griselda story appears for the first time in Boccaccio's *Decameron*, X, 10, and its sudden appearance needs some explanation in the light of the history of society and popular narrative. Scholars have sought to relate the story to some event in medieval history, to define it as an instance of medieval religious moralizing, or to connect it with some cycle of popular tales. The first two endeavors have proved themselves futile. The position of the story in folk tales is necessarily a highly technical question, and Griffith's method and results appeal to the folklorist rather than the sociologist. His results, moreover, are now called in question by Wirt Cate ("The Problem of the Origin of the Griselda Story," *Studies in Philology*, XXIX [1932], 389-405). For students of society the Griselda story has points of special interest. It illustrates well how an earlier manner of thinking survives in a later age; Griselda's unnatural submissiveness and her husband's strange demands are intelligible only in the light of primitive belief. These matters concern Griffith directly. The Griselda story swept Europe like wildfire after Boccaccio and Petrarch took it up. Naturally enough Griffith has no occasion to discuss the reasons for this unusual popularity of the Griselda story and to relate them to social conditions.

ARCHER TAYLOR

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Public Policy and Private Charities.* By ARLIEN JOHNSON. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. xiv+230. \$3.00.

In view of recent huge relief expenditures and the evident veering toward a new allocation of responsibility between public and private agencies, Dr. Johnson's study of public subsidies to, and supervision of, private charities gains a certain timeliness. Although the largest part of the discussion focuses upon Illinois situations, it is backed by analyses of statutes in forty-eight states. In spite of resistance to change on the part of subsidized agencies, the author is able to report "progress in the organization and functioning of the state agency and in the extension of public supervision over all private charitable organizations. . . . Payment by administrative arrangement is replacing the subsidy by statute." Development of a genuine science and art of public welfare administration seems to be called for.

ARTHUR J. TODD

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

*The Care of the Aged: Proceedings of the Deutsch Foundation Conference, 1930.* By I. M. RUBINOW (ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. xiii+144. \$3.00.

These papers constitute the core for a conference on problems of old age at the University of Chicago in 1930. They include discussions from the standpoint

of the industrialist, physician, labor leader, social worker, and insurance expert. Three fields of suggested activity stand out most prominently, viz., specialized social service both institutional and individual, state pensions, and more intelligent and humane assumption of responsibility by industry.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

ARTHUR J. TODD

*Indian Tribes of the Argentine and Bolivian Chaco.* By RAPHAEL KARSTEN.

"Societas Scientiarum Fennica, Commentationes Humanarum Litterarum," Vol. IV, No. 1. Helsingfors: Akademische Buchhandlung, 1932. Pp. x+236. M. 120.

In this monograph Professor Karsten presents the material gathered by him in his field trips in the Argentine and Bolivian Chaco during 1911, 1912, and 1913. After giving an account of his itinerary, he considers, phase by phase, the various aspects of the Indian cultures found there; material culture, social and political organization, position of women and education of the children, warfare, religious concepts, death. A section on the Toba language is added to the above. Particular attention is paid to the custom of *couvade*, which is found among the people of the Chaco, and there is also special consideration of the belief in magic and the ceremonial which is a reflection of this belief.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

MELVILLE J. HERSKOVITS

*Criminal Statistics in Iowa.* By CHARLES N. BURROWS. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1932. Pp. 111. \$1.00.

This study presents rates of conviction and sentence for each county and for the state as a whole, and population on a series of graphs plotted against time, 1840-1927, urban-rural percentages for each county, and comment on "significant facts." A brief summary emphasizes the tendency of both conviction and sentence rates to vary directly with urbanization and that "It is in these county studies that the most important facts are revealed."

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

C. C. VAN VECHTEN

*L'unité humaine: histoire de la civilisation et de l'esprit humain.* By PAUL PERRIER. Paris: Librairie Félix Alcan, 1931. Pp. xlvii+404. Fr. 60.

In this first of two volumes, the author of *Artiste ou Philosophe* extends his thesis that human institutions divide along the lines of art, which is concrete, and philosophy, which is abstract. The improvement of human society and its progression toward unity are attributed chiefly to the abstract, which is also identified with the impersonal, as contrasted with the personal. Religion and the state are treated in the present volume. It is argued from history that religion is essentially concrete and personal, and hence insufficient as a basis for regulating conduct. The modern state, on the contrary, has grown more impersonal and abstract with urbanization. This is an erudite book with a thesis which is perhaps overelaborated. Curiously, the author attributes most useful innovations to a chosen few.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

M. M. KNIGHT

# RECENT LITERATURE

## ABSTRACTS

The abstracts in this issue were prepared, under the direction of Clarence E. Glick and a member of the editorial staff, by Harmon P. Hayes, Joseph D. Lohman, Margaret L. Plumley, J. S. Roucek, Mary C. Schauffler, and F. L. Weller. Each abstract is numbered at the end according to the classification in the July issue of this *Journal*.

### I. HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY

91. KELLOGG, ARTHUR. *Minds Made by the Movies*. *Survey*, XXII, No. 5 (May, 1933), 245-50.—The Payne Fund studies of the effects of motion pictures upon the minds of American youth show that one person in three attending the movies is a child or adolescent and that these youths see practically nothing but adult pictures, at least three-fourths of which are concerned with crime, sex, or love. Professor Dale's analysis of 115 films taken at random showed 449 crimes depicted. Of the goals pursued, he found 9 per cent socially desirable. Tests given to school children at intervals revealed that pictures play a considerably larger rôle in the child's imagination than books do. Scenes of horror and tense excitement were shown to stimulate children intensely as measured by the psycho-galvanometer. Professor Blumer's autobiographies revealed 61 per cent of the writers had been terrified at some time by a movie scene. The suggestion of "bad" seems greatly to outweigh the suggestion for "good," and to be constant, cumulative, and to some children almost irresistible. New types of films are recommended by the Payne Committee since censorship and laws forbidding children to attend have not solved the problem. (I, 3).—*M.C.S.*

### II. THE FAMILY

92. BAXTER, CELENA A. *Sicilian Family Life*. *Family*, XIV, No. 3 (May, 1933), 82-88.—Love, fear, and jealousy are the three emotional elements dominating Sicilian family life: the wife is taught from childhood to love and to fear the husband chosen for her by her parents; the husband rules his wife and children rigorously through fear; both husband and wife are expected to show jealousy of each other as a sign of love. Sex relations outside of marriage are not tolerated for women. Natural children are provided for by the father in the same manner as his legitimate children. Men are given much more education than women. Trades are frequently a matter of class and family inheritance. Men see that their wives and children attend church regularly; they themselves go on special occasions. Women have little freedom before or after marriage. They must play the rôle of wife, mother, and housewife; men are the rulers and providers. (II, 2).—*M.C.S.*

### IV. CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS

93. KLÍMA, STANISLAV. *Ústřední organizace našich zahraničních kraganů* [Central Organization of Our Foreign Countrymen]. *Národnostní Obzor*, III, No. 2 (March, 1933), 177-91.—There is no central organization of American Czechoslovaks; the same applies to the Czechoslovaks in Canada and Argentina. In Europe, the Slovak minority in Hungary has no organization; the Hungarian officials have permitted no cultural society of the 200,000 Slovaks there. The same conditions apply to Soviet Russia. In Roumania the attempt in this direction failed in 1930. Although there are only 3,474 Czechoslovaks in Bulgaria, they are ideally organized, nine out of twelve societies being

organized in the "National House of T. G. Masaryk in Sofia." "The Czechoslovak colony of Paris" was organized in 1929 with seventeen branches (there were 54,104 Czechoslovaks in France in 1931). In Yugoslavia there are some one hundred societies, sixty-six of which (with 4,000 members) belong to the "Czechoslovak Union" in Belgrade. Over one hundred societies in Germany have no central society, though seventy-five are united in the "Association of Czechoslovak Foreign Societies" in Prague. "The Association of the Czechoslovak Societies in Poland" was formed in 1931 in Poland, but has not been approved by the Polish Government (there are some 200 societies in Poland). Sixteen members form the "Czechoslovak Minority Council" in Vienna. (IV, 2).—*J.S.R.*

94. MÜLLER, J. Rumerové [Rumers]. *Národnostní Obzor*, III, No. 2 (March, 1933), 234-36.—In Istria there exists the last fragment of the Roumanians, the Rumers, the Romanized Illirians. They live in the seven settlements near Lake Čepić, in the village Jeični. After the joining of Istria to Italy the seven settlements were united, by a royal decree of January 19, 1922, into an administrative unit, the "Il Comune di Val d'Arsa." In 1921 the Italians established in Susnjevita the first Italo-Roumanian school. There are some 3,000 Rumers there; the Italian census of December 1, 1921, counts 1,644 of them. With the exception of Istria, nowhere else is the Rumer language spoken. (IV, 2).—*J.S.R.*

95. GANEFF, V. La crise économique en Bulgarie et ses répercussions sociologiques [The Economic Crisis in Bulgaria and Its Sociological Repercussions]. *Sociologica Revue*, IV, No. 1 (1933), 33-47.—The present economic crisis of Bulgaria is primarily agricultural and shows a discrepancy between consumption and the development of import commerce and home industries. Foreign trade of Bulgaria is shaken. Internally, the limitation of credit makes the crisis worse; interest is 12 to 18 per cent. After the war Bulgaria was building its industry and commerce, which did not correspond to the needs of the country. Another factor is the excessive social policy; Bulgaria is one of the states which has ratified all recommendations of the International Labor Office. The national income, contrasted to 1912, fell in 1931 to nearly one-half, which is of great social importance, since Bulgaria is a young state and must build its standards up to that of western civilization. The state is the biggest consumer and producer, yet its finances are crippled. Further restriction of state employees would increase unemployment and strengthen the already dangerous elements in Bulgaria. The crisis has changed the centrum of social equilibrium in Bulgaria. During and after the war the peasant became the main social and political factor. If the process is to become definite, it must be based upon a wide economic basis, corresponding to the new situation of these social classes. But the crisis has destroyed these bases, and the old ones cannot be replaced. The lack of social equilibrium is the most characteristic element of the social dynamics of Bulgaria of today. This is strengthened by the growth of social *declassés*, who form the most powerful elements in political parties. (IV, 2; VII, 4).—*J.S.R.*

96. FORT, FRÁŇA L. Polský tisk, jeho vývoj a přítomnost [Polish Press, Its Development and Present]. *Casopis Svobodné Školy Politických Nauk v Praze*, V, No. 6 (March, 1933), 183-86.—From the beginning of the first newspaper in Poland in 1761, up to the last division of Poland, only ephemeral newspapers appeared. Only one periodical of this epoch survives. In the nineteenth century new periodicals were founded. Numerous famous Polish poets popularized the newspaper with the masses. About a half of Polish literary works appeared in newspapers before they were published in book form. The roots of the publishing were connected with the priests, military officers (whose ranks originated mostly from smaller noblemen), and city bourgeoisie. After the 1831 revolution, Polish journalism went abroad. In 1913 Austrian Poland had 495 journals, Russian Poland 384, and Prussian Poland 180. Numerous Polish journals were published abroad (Roumania 7, Germany 9, Sweden 19, France 23, United States 25, Belgium 28, and Denmark 56). The re-establishment of Poland rejuvenated the press. In 1928, 2,200 journals were in existence, nearly a third being published in Warsaw. (IV, 2).—*J.S.R.*

## V. POPULATION AND TERRITORIAL GROUPS

97. MACKAYE, BENTON. Tennessee—Seed of a National Plan. *Survey*, XXII, No. 5 (May, 1933), 251-54.—The proposed development of the Tennessee River Valley means much more than control and use of water flow; it means also the control of the flow of population from the city, the control of the invasion of the hinterland by the metropolitan slum. Such control can be effected in three ways: by the townless highway, patterned after the railroad with stations for entrance and departure where all motorists' needs may be satisfied; by highwayless towns where living is divorced from transport, as in Radburn, New Jersey; and by a forest wilderness with an extensive system of footpaths and with motor roads the exception. (V, 5).—M.C.S.

## VI. COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR

98. BLÁHA, A. Krise dnešní společnosti. [Crisis of Today's Society]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, No. 1 (1923), 7-20.—We can discern today a crisis in our social, economic, political, cultural, and moral principles. This crisis has arrived today—in an epoch of great changes of social order. The processes of adaptation and co-operation which predominate, and in normal times form the main bases of social life, are now paralyzed and replaced by those of isolation and conflict. The equilibrium of social order consisting of the political, economic, cultural, and moral order has been conquered by a hypertrophy of political order, by the contamination of economic and political order, and by the separation of both from the cultural and moral order, to which in the normal times the first two are subordinated. The solution of the crisis is possible by two means; one is to have the political and economic leaders more qualified from the intellectual and moral viewpoints; the other one is to develop at the base of our society general culture and moral resistance. Both ways, however, are necessary. (VI, 2; VII, 4).—J.S.R.

99. BUTTER, OSKAR. Veřejné mínění a tisk za světové krise [Public Opinion and during the World Crisis]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, No. 1 (1933), 21-32.—A new evaluation of political economic incidents is forced upon public opinion and the press. So far, all politics began with the isolation of events which could be localized. But this is gone now. The trouble is that press and public opinion are antagonistic to internationalism. The present crisis is accompanied by lethargy of public opinion and is primarily moral, the inability of the man to satisfy the needs of growing "world centralization," which affects everything. (VI, 2).—J.S.R.

## VII. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

100. DE SIQUEIRA, COUTINHO J. Peace Mentality and Disarmament. *Sociologus*, VIII, No. 1 (March, 1932), 23-38.—The disarmament conferences have failed because the dominant attitude of the statesmen has been a legal one rather than a sociological one which could take into account socio-psychological factors. The day for the sociological politician has arrived, and the sociologist can, by dealing with realities, help social groups fulfil their aspirations without friction or force. (VII, 4; IV, 2).—J.D.L.

101. CHLEPNER, B.-S.—L'avenir du capitalisme [a propos des travaux de W. Sombart] [The Future of Capitalism (in Reference to the Works of W. Sombart)]. *Revue de l'Institut de Soc.*, XIII<sup>e</sup> Année, No. 1 (January-March, 1933), 25-28.—Saint-Simon's, Comte's, and Marx's predictions describe their conception of what *should* be rather than what *will* be. Is Sombart's prediction of the future of capitalism more scientific? Starting from an analysis of the present phase of capitalism, Sombart considers the tendencies he finds will be prolonged and intensified in the future. His notion that the capitalistic spirit has given way in France, Holland, or England to a "rentier" spirit is a too simple formula. If it is true of single families that the success of the enterprising spirit brings forth the "rentier" spirit, other families can still become centers of the spirit of enterprise. The retardation of population increase in Europe and the United States may possibly lead to their return to agrarianism, as Sombart predicts; but there is no immanent historical necessity of that. Of all Sombart's predictions, the most

plausible is that the multiplicity of forms of economic organization will continue and increase. But he then limits the varieties: each autarchic nation will have a *Planwirtschaft* with a national economic council with broad co-ordinating powers, while some capitalistic forms and competition will continue. This does not appear likely; the statement involves contradictions. Really, no prevision is possible. New régimes may give way to still others of which we do not now conceive. In Sombart's previsions, especially when he makes them precise, he becomes more and more subjective, leaves science for journalism. (VII, 7).—H.P.H.

#### VIII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS, SOCIAL PATHOLOGY, AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

102. **McCONNEL, BEATRICE.** *The Shift in Child Labor.* *Survey*, LXIX, No. 5, (May, 1933), 187-88.—Many children are leaving school in order to go to work. In many cases they are supporting their families, the adults in the home being unemployed. What decline there has been in number of child laborers is only relative to the decline in total laborers. There has been a shift to the less desirable, less well paid, and less regulated types of industries. Industrial homework has taken on a new lease of life during hard times. In the last ten years there has been an increase of 67 per cent of sixteen- and seventeen-year-old minors employed in the Pennsylvania clothing industry. Weekly earnings in this type of employment range around five dollars and below. Owing to child labor these young people are deprived of the privileges of developing their future earning power, as well as suffering from lack of certain cultural advantages. (VIII, 1).—F.L.W.

103. **SPRINGER, GERTRUDE.** *What Price the Power of the Food Order?* *Survey*, LXIX, No. 5 (May, 1933), 182-83.—Some of the first and most annoying problems for the young relief worker arise from some of the following situations: a family on relief attending a movie, the support of a dog, permanent waves, party dresses, and parties. However, for the worker to use the food order in a threatening way in order to get them to give up these indulgences is one of the quickest ways to "lose the confidence of the family and invite deceit." The family is often able to have these privileges only because it can secure or tactfully manipulate its somewhat latent resources. As the relief worker becomes more experienced there is greater tolerance for such situations. (VIII, 1).—F.L.W.

104. **DUNHAM, ARTHUR.** *Building Men—Growing Trees.* *Survey*, LXIX, No. 5, (May, 1933), 186-87.—Some 250,000 young men, between the ages of 18 and 25, are to be selected for forestry work. These are to be unmarried men, selected from families already receiving aid. During the six months in their camp work they will receive thirty dollars per month, most of which will be turned over, by them, to their families. It is not expected that this will solve unemployment but is a constructive attack. (VIII, 1; VI, 2).—F.L.W.

105. **BROWN, FREDERICK W.** *The Permanent Cure of Stuttering.* *Mental Hygiene Quarterly*, XVII, No. 2 (April, 1933), 266-77.—Personality integration is probably the essential factor in permanent cure of stuttering, and the various methods of cure used are successful to the extent to which they serve as tools in bringing about a greater degree of emotional stability in the personal reactions and attitudes and the social relationships of the stutterer. The three cases cited showed that clearing up of personality maladjustments and emotional conflicts were of utmost importance. Thorough physical examination, a Binet intelligence test, and study of the patient's environment preceded course of treatments, which included not only speech training but much emphasis on the patients' personality problems. (VIII, 4).—M.L.P.

106. **FAIRBANKS, RUTH E., M.D.** *The Subnormal Child—Seventeen Years After.* *Mental Hygiene Quarterly*, XVII, No. 2 (April, 1933), 177-217.—A follow-up of 122 subnormal children in Locust Point District of Baltimore, surveyed in 1914 under direction of Dr. Adolph Meyer, shows surprising stability in the group. Three-fourths are self-supporting; there were only five cases of illegitimacy, five prostitutes, thirteen divorces, four separations, and thirty cases ever under care of a welfare agency. Com-

parison with ninety normal individuals, also studied in 1914 and used as a control, shows in a normal group fewer marriages, better education, better jobs, higher scale of living, and no contact with social agencies, but the contrast is less than predicted by the original surveyors. The stabilizing influence of home, neighborhood, and early school contacts (particularly with one teacher) are held responsible for the unexpectedly good showing of the subnormal group. (VIII, 4).—*M. L. P.*

#### IX. THEORY AND METHODS

107. OGBURN, WILLIAM F. *Die Realistische Soziologie in Amerika* [Realistic Sociology in America]. *Sociologus*, VIII, No. 1 (March, 1932), 7-22.—A recent trend of sociology in the United States is toward the study of modern practical problems such as population, the family, crime, children, etc. This development lies in the attempt to make sociology more "scientific," less of opinion, and more of accurate data which in turn appears to be based more upon measurement and counting. The Social Trends Report is such a study and is made possible through extensive private contributions. With a great many such researches the problem of a synthesis or systematic integration of the various parts of sociology will be more exact and realistic. (IX, 2; IX, 7).—*J. D. L.*

108. BRIEN, PAUL. *L'aspect sociologique de quelques phénomènes biologiques* [The Sociological Aspect of Some Biological phenomena]. *Rev. de l'Institut de Soc.*, XIII<sup>e</sup> Année, No. 1 (January-March, 1933), 1-16.—It is sociology which can give guidance to biology, rather than vice versa. Terms in the definition of society are useful in description of certain biological phenomena. The essentials of society are given as interattraction of individuals, creating interaction such that each individual undergoes a modification in its orientation, its disposition, and in its structure, and each of these modifications in an individual is conditioned by the presence of other individuals; the resulting whole is a synthesis, not a mere summation. Certain animal collectivities (notably the *coenobie* of *Circinalium conrescens*) manifest these features much more perfectly than do the classical examples: ant-colonies and bee-hives, where physiological differentiation is the basis of "division of labor" and the whole is rather a summation of individual dispositions than a synthesis. The physiology of some low animal species shows that multicellular organisms also have some of the essentials of society. While sociological language can be applied to biological phenomena of association without falsifying the external aspect of the phenomena, it cannot supply an explanation of those phenomena. In this use of sociological language, literary and vitalist generalizations are to be avoided. (IX, 5).—*H. P. H.*

109. BERELMAN, CHAIM. *Le statut social des jugements de valeur* [The Social Rule of Value-Judgments]. *Rev. de l'Institut de Soc.*, XIII<sup>e</sup> Année, No. 1 (January-March, 1933), 17-23.—All judgments of truth are dependent upon judgments of value. For the acceptance of any method of verification is a value-judgment; the accepted methods of verification and their order of superiority are not the same in different groups. This thesis denies all universal logical necessity, for the belonging to a group is independent of logic. Within a group in which the methods of proof are settled and hierarchized, there can be truth. Between groups, there can be toleration; or, since value-judgments are not demonstrable, discussion may lead to "the criteria of action," and then we discover the relatedness of value to valor. (IX, 5).—*H. P. H.*

110. VAILE, GERTRUDE. *The Contribution of Rural Sociology to Family Social Work*. *Family*, XIV, No. 4 (June, 1933), 106-10.—Rural sociology has made three contributions to family social work: an analysis of rural culture within which family life is set; information in regard to types of families growing out of rural culture; and a description of the extent and significance of the changes going on in the rural family and community and in personal attitudes as the result of the development of modern means of communication. Particularly helpful have been the sociological studies of small towns since social workers have more clients in small towns than in the open country. Blumenthal's *Small-Town Stuff*, with its analysis of personal life and relationships within the little town, is spoken of as "a real boon to rural social workers." Sociological studies of the relation between local government and the lives of families and individuals within the community are needed. (IX, 6).—*M. C. S.*



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## THE BUREAUCRATIC CULTURE PATTERN AND POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS

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### ABSTRACT

Under the bureaucratic culture pattern, life is conceived in terms of belonging to a hierarchy intrusted with the management and administration of the affairs of the organized community. Pecuniary values are obtained through manipulation into a position carrying pecuniary emoluments. Education serves only the end of making better bureaucrats, and since commitments to liberalism and civilization necessitate the maintenance of a school system, the educated population ultimately increases beyond the number of positions available, and occasion arises for political revolution. The most effective influence in decreasing political revolution has been the parliamentary system as it functions in the bureaucratic countries, a system more properly described as parliamentary oligarchy shading off into oligarchical dictatorship. It enables the state to absorb on part time a double number of office seekers, one group of bureaucrats leaving office as a new group enters. A vigorous leader may seek to retain his office by incorporating into his organization all possible rivals, by more thorough centralization of all state offices in his own hands, thus enabling him to create new posts, new activities, and new functions, and by inducing foreign capital to come in and exploit more systematically the country's natural resources. But the avalanche of oncoming bureaucrats increasing beyond the capacity of the state treasury makes revolution ultimately inevitable, and the accumulation of other social issues gives greater force and motive to the upheaval.

That part of mankind living under the domination of what is called Western Civilization is seen, on closer investigation, to possess two definite systems of social behavior, or two different culture patterns. The first pattern might be called the pecuniary-industrial. It is easily distinguishable; it is the pattern under which most of us are living. Geographically it includes England and Scotland, North-eastern France, Northern and Western Germany, a large part of

Belgium and Holland, most of Canada, and an overwhelming part of the United States. There are smaller spots in Europe and in other parts of the world which a scrupulous canvass might also include in this category, but for the purpose at hand this geographical delimitation will suffice.

The distinctive feature of this culture pattern might be assumed to be familiar to those of us living under its shadow, and a recital of its traits is resorted to here mainly for the sake of contrast. Life with us is conceived in terms of engaging in the production and selling of goods and services for immediately pecuniary ends, and, because of that, social status closely follows successful ability in that direction. It does not mean that nothing else in life counts, but it does mean that nothing else, singly or together, counts for as much as the establishing of a large number of selling and buying contacts accompanied by the possession of large numbers of symbols indicating pecuniary control. The expansion of personal life, the standing and deference in the eyes of other human beings, the consideration shown us by organized society and the institutions of government, even the attitudes of the leaders of such spiritual movements as art and religion, evince an overwhelming tendency to be influenced by the success obtained in the pecuniary-industrial world. Young men look forward to activity in pecuniary-industrial terms, and they conceive the pinnacle of life to be that where one finds himself as the dominating center of a network of banks and factories, shipping lines and railroads, mines and oil-wells, planning, manipulating, expanding, and incorporating. They have no other hope than that of dying in this pecuniary-industrial harness, concerned to their last moment with its smooth and pecuniarily successful working, after the manner of a famous owner of a chain of railway-restaurants, who, it is alleged, left this world with the parting injunction to his lieutenants, "Boys, slice the ham thin!"

Opposed to this stands another system of life-values and activities which I venture to call the bureaucratic culture pattern, with its two subsidiaries, the aristocratic and the military. In point of geographical extension it covers a far wider area than the pecuniary-industrial. It includes the rest of Europe and the whole of Latin America, considering only the world of Christendom, and probably also the

largest part of Asia and civilized Africa. In this culture pattern life is conceived in terms of belonging to a hierarchy intrusted with the management and administration of the affairs of the organized community. Success in life means a continuous ascent in this hierarchy. Pecuniary values are not excluded; money, as a matter of fact, is a very important item in the life of the bureaucracy, but money is obtained not as in the industrial community through buying and selling, but through the manipulation of one's self into a position carrying with it larger pecuniary emoluments or, in a less approved fashion, by making use of the state as a buyer and seller of goods and services in such a manner as to enhance invisibly but very substantially one's private purchasing power. The fact that the same code which makes such a procedure desirable also makes it morally reprehensible is beside the point. A person who accumulates money in such a way is far more highly esteemed than one who manages to accumulate an equal amount by the tedious drudgery of earning it in the manner current in the pecuniary-industrial society. Young men growing up in this society look forward to a period of preparation which should give them access to a state job wherein by dint of cultivating their superiors they may be placed in a better job where others may cultivate them. The individual sees himself as the center of a widely ramified system, where orders are given and taken, where promotion comes rapidly, where each successive stage carries with it the approval of those above, honorific designations, the respect of inferiors, the deference of the lay community, and a pension till his dying day and beyond.

The economic organization of a community of the bureaucratic culture pattern is dominated by agricultural production, and, with hardly an exception, this agricultural production is carried on by peasants under semi-feudal conditions of ownership and control. Between the agricultural producer and the rest of society there is a very high barrier; the peasant is responsible for almost the entire volume of goods turned out by the community, but he receives in return for his efforts a very meager compensation, the largest returns going into the hands of the aristocratic landowners, the church, the army, and the bureaucracy. The result is that the peasant's purchasing power is very limited, and industrial activity in that community

is correspondingly limited by this restricted purchasing power of its most numerous members. The beneficiaries of this system of production, on the other hand, are abundantly blessed with purchasing power, which enables them to be the carriers of a very high standard of living, extravagant in its compass and luxurious in its aim. The bureaucrat forms the middle class in this economic organization, and since he cannot, in decency, model himself in his expenditures after the pattern of the peasant community, he will tend to model himself after the aristocratic community. His own contributions are limited to a greater and a more honest concern with the affairs of the intellect than is the case with the aristocracy, and to a keener interest in the give-and-take of political machination. The aristocratic landowner plays the rôle of a passive receiver of income which he spends in the most approved fashion of expensive living. Except for the fact that he is the arbiter of standards of expenditures, the land-owning aristocrat is little concerned with the life of the community in the midst of which he lives. He is in it but not of it. He usually speaks a foreign tongue, French or English, finds his companionship among aristocrats of other countries, sends his children to foreign schools or keeps foreign tutors for their training, and even when he is on his estates he surrounds himself with the luxuries and even the necessities of Paris and London rather than share with the native population in any system of living that they may have developed indigenously. Under these circumstances the inevitable leader of the community is the bureaucrat.

With leadership thrust upon him, as it were, the technique to which he resorts is that of the centralized system of administration where the local community plays a very subordinate rôle, if it plays any rôle at all, because the purpose of administration is not the well-being of the local community but that of the larger national community. To what extent the military character of that national community is responsible for this centralization and to what extent the necessity for control by a central military authority imposes such emphasis on a central office, it is difficult to estimate. Both factors were historically present at the inception of the bureaucratic culture pattern, and they have continued to be present until this day. At any rate centralized administrative government is an absolute

essential of a bureaucratic régime, and because of this centralization the range of bureaucratic activity is widely extended, and its sinews are strengthened and increased. Bearing also in mind that most bureaucratic countries are countries living under a real or pretended military necessity and dominated by a real or pretended fear of invasion or national mischief, we can again easily see how the mass of the population can be made to acquiesce in this centralized military-bureaucratic control even if tempted to question it. But it is not even remotely tempted to question such centralized control because there is no one interested in or capable of inquiry. The aristocrat who might be capable is not interested, and the peasant who might be interested is not capable. The small number of merchants and craftsmen who are both interested and capable find that a resort to law will mean a tangled web of legal technicalities which only the bureaucrat can understand because he made the law and he manipulates it. The merchant therefore finds it cheaper to pay his tribute to the bureaucrat, buy immunity from one by bribing another, and bribe the former too if that becomes necessary, ultimately taking it out of the consumer who, ironically enough, is the bureaucrat himself. In a peasant community most of the buying and selling is done by and to bureaucrats, because the aristocrats buy abroad, and the peasants buy very little if at all. The few manufacturers and owners of public utilities, where these are not state owned, also come to terms with the bureaucrat, on something like a commission basis. The marriage of big business with bureaucracy is in fact one of the favorite topics of the *chronique scandaleuse* of the bureaucratic community.

The bureaucratic technique, in the nature of the case an administrative technique based upon the recording of data—names, places and figures—emphasizes correspondingly the mechanism through which this technique is acquired. Such a mechanism is education, and we therefore find bureaucratic communities fully aware of the benefits of education and committed to its spread and perpetuation. But in the nature of the case, also, there is in a bureaucratic community no use for education except for bureaucratic purposes. The peasant with his primitive system of production stands in no particular need of it, because it will avail him but little to have sta-



tistical proof of the fact that he is being exploited. The middle-class merchant or artisan looks upon education not as a means of being able to do his job better but as a means of getting out of his job and joining the ranks of the bureaucrats. The upshot of the matter is that the further education spreads the larger the number of potential bureaucrats. There is literally nothing else for the educated person to do except seek to be enrolled into the bureaucracy. The possibilities of economic production which are so alluring to the educated man in the pecuniary-industrial culture pattern are absent in the bureaucratic situation because there is little capital available for economic enterprise, and there is only a limited market for the goods which might be created by economic enterprises. All this is true even assuming that the educated young men were willing to enter the world of economic production, which they are not. They are not for the very simple reason that economic activities, if not altogether declass  , are certainly far behind in the race for respectability in the bureaucratic culture, where respectability plays a more decisive r  le than in almost any other. There is for the bureaucrat very little chance of self-expression in the sense of a realization that one is engaged in the creation of values of a material sort, the only values which give the ordinary man a consciousness of significance in the scheme of things. Such a significance the bureaucrat must obtain by virtue of belonging to an important organization, by being a member of a group that represents the mystic something called the state or the government. This throws the whole emphasis of his life not upon what he does but upon what people will think of him and, for that reason, among others less important, we find a bureaucratic community terribly meticulous in matters of precedence and concerned to the point of irrationality with the fine shades of what is or is not proper to do under certain circumstances. Nowhere in modern civilization, with the possible exception of the army and the highly institutionalized church, does life achieve as ritualistic a bias as it does here. In consequence, bureaucratic life carries with it a dramatic tenseness and picturesque splendor, by the side of which the sober business world seems drab and stupid. To a bureaucrat our pecuniary-industrial society seems, to use his own words, "like an army of ants blindly following a straight line doing things which it does

not understand for purposes which it does not see." When we compare, for example, the arrival in a certain locality of the greatest financial power in the region with the arrival of the governor of the state, we can understand why in a community where money counts for so little and bureaucratic prestige for so much the educated young man is anxious to gain admission rapidly into the bureaucratic ranks and be the center of the same spectacular attention as that other bureaucrat whose magnificent pageant he has just witnessed.

In a world where life-values are conceived in terms of hierarchical prestige and power, where intelligence and education can find only one outlet besides the army and the church, namely, state service, and where, unless they do find such service, there is literally nothing for them to do but face a period of respectable starvation, but starvation nevertheless; where the commitments of liberalism and civilization necessarily mean the maintenance of a school system whose business it is to prepare the young people for nothing else but state service; in such a world a Malthusian law of population increase of the educated in relation to the positions to be filled creates a situation of such tenseness as inevitably to lead to the explosions of a political revolution.

It is not without significance that in the last fifty years the centers of political revolutions have coincided with the dominance therein of this bureaucratic culture pattern. In fact, the typical revolutionary countries are the countries of Latin America, which present to a larger degree than any other the traits of the bureaucratic culture complex. Excepting the epidemic of dictatorships, which is a form of political revolution, there have been few upheavals in Europe since 1870. Partly because greater productivity has made possible a higher taxing power, partly because a colonial empire placed at the disposal of the bureaucratic régime new sources of income or more bureaucratic positions, larger incomes have become available and with that a more generous apportionment of this income for the maintenance of a larger bureaucratic staff. The tremendous increase in standing armies with the requirement for a very large officer staff may also have tended to absorb some of the bureaucratic avalanche into the ranks of the army. And, finally, since every country in

Europe shows a certain amount of industrialization in the last fifty years it is proper to expect that such industrialization will cause a rift in the solidity of the bureaucratic culture pattern and tend to slacken the rate and to obviate the necessity of political revolutions.

By far the most effective influence in decreasing political revolutions has been the parliamentary system as it functions in the bureaucratic countries. This parliamentary system, in spite of the fact that it calls itself democratic, is in reality bureaucratic; voting privileges, even where they are not definitely tied up with bureaucratic and literary prerequisites, have automatically resulted in making voting and election to office the peculiar domain of the bureaucratic population. Where voting has not been altogether considered as a farce, it has simply meant that one group of bureaucrats gets out of office while another one comes in. The regularity and periodicity of this shift has made it possible that the hungry bureaucrats on the outside have their turn at milking the sacred cow of state, and when they have had their fill they step out, and the others who have been waiting their turn come in. As long as this process keeps up, the newly arrived bureaucratic candidates get their chance, and the state is able to absorb on part time a double number of office-seekers. There is of course a limit even to this process of absorption. When the candidates are too numerous for even this scheme of a balanced diet, political struggles assume tremendous vigor and sharpness, and the number of political parties shows a very great increase. This, in the main, accounts for the great number of political parties in bureaucratic countries, since a shrewd, skilful, and oratorical leader will always find a following among those hoping for bureaucratic position or preferment. This also accounts for the very intense loyalty and devotion to the chief which characterizes the rank and file of these political parties, a discipline that is easily maintained as long as the chief can distribute spoils among his followers. But as soon as it becomes obvious that the chief is not in a position to satisfy their demands, they have no hesitation in shifting their allegiance to another chief who has shown himself a better provider. Their intense loyalty lasts only as long as they can see results, and the same reason accounts for the rapid disappearance of political parties. After the chief makes his peace with another chief in exchange for an

honorable and profitable bureaucratic or cabinet appointment, the party is disbanded or naturally falls to pieces. The members of the party either follow the example of their former chief, if they can gain admittance, or a new party springs up to repeat the process. This political system should more properly be described as parliamentary oligarchy shading off into oligarchical dictatorship, rather than parliamentary democracy. A statistical analysis of cabinet membership in a bureaucratic country over a quarter of a century will show the same names shifting back and forth in and out of power, with an occasional new name drifting in. This new name may represent the leader of a new party which is assuming a sufficiently threatening size so that it has to be placated, but in the main the oligarchic character remains intact as long as the total army of bureaucrats and the bureaucratically eligible are taken care of by means of appointments and honors.

Occasionally, a particularly vigorous leader, after he has once drifted into power, refuses to relinquish it. The mechanism by which he continues his hold upon that power works out in a slightly different manner but still maintains its oligarchic character. The vigorous leader sets to work to incorporate into his organization all the possible rivals, rivals sufficiently strong to be real competitors and to give him trouble. This is done by means of a more thorough centralization so that all state offices are now in his hands, and he therefore has a larger number at his disposal than before. Often he creates new posts, new activities, and brings forth new functions. This is quite possible because bureaucratic countries, being in the main greatly in need of all forms of economic and social and cultural development, will give a shrewd leader the opportunity to create the necessary organs for such development. He thereby kills two birds with one stone; he is engaged in "leading his country along the lines of progress," and he finds the necessary jobs for his growing number of supporters. Frequently his economic and social improvements really result in an increased productive capacity of the country and, with that, in increased taxing power of the state, that is, of himself, and often he finds in the community natural resources enough, which had previously been lying idle or had been exploited only in a half-hearted fashion, to enable him to induce capital, usually foreign

capital, to come in and exploit them more systematically. The result of such exploitation is a further increase in the taxing power of the state and a mad rush on the part of the chief's henchmen to offer their influence with the chief, the courts, and anyone else, to enable this foreign capital to get what it wants with less effort or with less trouble or with no trouble at all. All this redounds to the greater glory of the chief and the profit of his lieutenants. Foreign capital thereby becomes committed to this chief and to his administration, and peace, progress, security of capital, and the perpetuation of the existing régime become synonymous. Voices raised against the existing régime, if they are important enough, are taken into the bosom of the family and made to share in the glory and the spoils, and if they are not important, they are quickly silenced by the bureaucratic equivalent of "being taken for a ride," made famous by Diaz' classic and laconic command: "Mata-lo, Kill him!" Parliamentary oligarchy has now passed over into full-fledged dictatorship.

But the avalanche of oncoming bureaucrats continues to increase, and the capacity of the state treasury does not increase as fast as the demands upon it, particularly since the rapacity of the incumbents looks askance at any suggestion toward sharing the spoils of office with a continuously increasing number of claimants. The chief himself grows old or comes more and more under the influence of his camarilla, and his judgment and discretion are no longer available in all the critical situations arising with increasing frequency and intensity. The henchmen, secure in their position and drunk with power, fail to keep to even the decorous shadows of their avowed democratic régime. The shamelessness of this régime is open and above-board, its cruelties are common knowledge, and its cynicism is publicly flaunted. But, above all, the increasingly larger number of hungry bureaucrats hammers tumultuously at the brazen gates which apparently will never be opened. The number of the clamoring bureaucrats is now too large to be disposed of in the simple manner of twentieth-century Chicago. Foreign capital itself is becoming dubious as to whether it is "betting on the right horse" and is beginning to hold back on its program of further exploitation. It is even beginning to carry on a clandestine flirtation with those who

look like the most successful contestants for the right to rule over the milking of the cow of state. It may even be willing to invest a trifling sum in the opposition—that point has never been made clear and it probably never will be. The controlling régime is furious, and fury makes it blind. It thinks that it can resort to the approved methods of quieting the trouble-makers, but this only results in further irritating them and stimulating them to do more dogged and raucous opposition. The régime may realize that it is at death's door and willingly accept extreme unction and depart. The clouds then disperse, and the same old game continues but with the cards shuffled and distributed differently. But it may not, and it frequently does not, see that the end is near, and even if it could see, it does not know how to abdicate gracefully.

Yet it is obvious that if only the two contesting bureaucratic groups were involved in the struggle the matter would result in nothing worse than a little demoralization of the administrative machine, a little bubbling foam on the top, perhaps a stoppage of some more or less important social and economic functions, a temporary interference with bureaucratic or diplomatic accessories, and no more. Insignificant as these may look in the sum total of the social and economic activities of the community, they are yet both absolutely and relatively important enough to cause considerable disturbance, because a bureaucratic régime is a highly centralized régime, and what happens at the center involves to a large degree all the peripheral functions of the state. Furthermore, all bureaucratic régimes are involved in a wide program of what might be called state-socialism. The state is a large employer of labor, a user of capital, and a manipulator of large quantities of capital goods. Railroads, telegraphs, telephones, and school system, and sometimes the church, hygiene institutions and hospitals, and a multitude of minor functions are bound to be seriously interfered with by the outbreak of this bureaucratic squabble—enough to cause a serious breakdown of transportation and communication, involving not only those directly dependent upon the regular working of the state machine but also a great many innocent bystanders who, in the nature of their innocent existence, are compelled to make use of these state-owned or state-operated services.

But this bureaucratic squabble does not stop with this *opéra bouffe* revolution, although sometimes it may, as we have often noticed with amusement. There are, in a society of the bureaucratic culture pattern, large quantities of inflammable material lying around on all sides ready to burst into consuming flames by the proper application of the revolutionary torch so playfully handled by the squabbling bureaucrats. There is usually an agrarian problem, since the existing semi-feudal agrarian system has piled up a large landless proletariat living in conditions of semi-slavery in a régime which trumpets liberty, fraternity, and equality with every political breath. These loud protestations of social welfare in face of the crass practices of social abuse do not pass altogether unnoticed by the few literates which the bureaucratic régime creates as one of its by-products. Those who have been taught to read by the mistaken zeal of bureaucratic liberalism are now ready to believe 100 per cent more than what the dissatisfied bureaucrats tell them of the evil doings of those who are in power. The alphabet is a double-edged sword, and it may capriciously cut in the wrong direction, particularly in the hands of the semi-literate. These semi-literates now become the lieutenants of the bureaucratic commanders, and they are able to arouse enough slumbering passions among the hosts of the exploited and the down-trodden masses to gain a following of considerable magnitude which, once started, becomes cumulative both in size and speed. The political revolution now changes into the full swing of a torrential social upheaval, carrying with it destruction of far greater importance than was contemplated in the original scheme of the revolting bureaucrats.

It would be a mistake as well as obviously unfair to the nobler aspects of human nature to fail to mention the elements of noble aspirations, of pure idealism, of unselfish devotion that come into play in a situation as catastrophic as a social revolution. There are persons who fight the existing régime, not because they expect to gain anything from its downfall, but because they think that it is essentially evil and dangerous; who believe that its pretensions, which they approve of, and its performances, which they do not, should be brought into closer relation; who believe that a better world for the oppressed and persecuted is both desirable and possible

if the present régime were to abdicate and make way for one more in touch and sympathy with those who bear most of the burdens of social achievement. All this, certainly, should not be left out of account in any characterization of the genesis of a social revolution. Similarly, as a matter of mechanism, these idealists and their idealistic protestations are often, if not usually, the spark which sets the whole mass aflame, and even those who enter the movement of rebellion with definite personal aims and desires are soon carried away by the idealistic spirit which presides at its inception, and they are willing to give their life-blood for "the cause" without any after-thought. We enter now in the domain of mass movements where the individual is swallowed up by the saintly or criminal actions of the mob. Nor should one fail to bear in mind the orgiastic character of revolutionary activity. The heightening of human emotions incident to such activity, the intoxicating feeling of power, the uplifting of individual insignificance into a realm of actions where life and death hang on a slender thread, the overpowering sense of the heroic significance of life, in such startling contrast with their previous drab and prosaic existence—all of this gives color, gives pathos and dignity to life, and turns into the stately measures of a tragedy the puny jerks of otherwise contemptible human beings fighting to thrust their hungry mouths into a too-long-delayed mess of pottage. People who can commit suicide because of the capricious gyrations of a stock market must not fail to appreciate the equal claims to distinction of those life-values which can lead their holders to lay down their tawdry lives in a dignified way.



## DELINQUENCY AREAS IN THE PUGET SOUND REGION

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### ABSTRACT

Wide variations were found in the rates for juvenile delinquency between specific areas in large cities, small cities, and counties. Concentration of the homes of delinquents near the central business districts and near basic industries was characteristic. High rates of delinquency have persisted over an eighteen-year period in the central areas of Seattle. Low delinquency rates were found, however, among Japanese boys in a centrally located school district of the same city. Spokane and Bellingham showed high rates in outlying areas, but in both cases these districts were in close proximity to basic industries. In Tacoma and less clearly in Seattle rates tended to vary inversely with the distance from the city center. A positive correlation was found between rates for family dependency and rates for juvenile delinquency. In small neighborhoods a single personality may be an important factor in the prevention of delinquency. As the number involved in a series becomes smaller, the rates are increasingly subject to marked variation, owing to single escapades involving several boys.

There is in the northwestern corner of the United States between the Olympic and Cascade ranges a crescent-shaped basin known as the Puget Sound region. It extends from the international boundary southward and westward to the Pacific. About one million people, or approximately two-thirds of the population of Washington, live in this area. Lumbering and farming are the principal economic activities.

The significant findings of Clifford R. Shaw and his associates concerning the relation between community backgrounds and delinquent behavior<sup>1</sup> suggested a similar study in the Puget Sound region. To what extent did those findings apply to the larger cities? Could the same methods be used profitably for studies of smaller cities?

<sup>1</sup> Some of the more important of these findings may be summarized as follows: (a) juvenile delinquents are not distributed uniformly over the city but tend to be concentrated in areas adjacent to the central business district and to heavy industry; (b) there are wide variations in the rates of delinquents between urban areas; (c) the rates of delinquents tend to vary inversely with the distance from the center of the city; (d) delinquency areas in the American city are characterized by high rates of family dependency.

For the data on which the findings are based see Clifford R. Shaw and Henry D. McKay, *Social Factors in Juvenile Delinquency*, Part II. Shaw's Seattle study is described on pp. 179-87 of this Wickersham report.

Would they reveal delinquency areas in the rural sections of counties?

With a population of 365,583, Seattle is the metropolitan center of the region. In 1870 it numbered only 1,107 individuals. The geographical setting limited the possible directions in which this pioneer village could expand. Elliott Bay was the boundary on the west, First Hill rising rapidly from the bay formed a barrier to the east, and the Duwamish River tide flats discouraged movement southward. Because the area to the north of the original settlement offered the least resistance to expansion it was natural that growth should be in that direction. Since 1900, when the city counted 80,671 inhabitants, the shopping center has shifted from Pioneer Square northward about three-quarters of a mile to the vicinity of Times Square.

In general the industrial and commercial areas of Seattle are located in the valleys and on reclaimed tide flats, the better residential districts on the hills. The former tend to have high rates for delinquency and dependency, the latter low ones. Queen Anne Hill, areas 16 and 17 on Map I, an established residential community with a high percentage of home-ownership and a population economically comfortable, presents an island of low rates rising above a sea of high rates.

The rates in large figures on this map are from a study of 1,529 delinquent boys made by Clifford R. Shaw in the summer of 1929. On the same map are shown in small figures the rates for a similar study of 1,683 boys<sup>2</sup> completed during the summer of 1932. Using the average rate for districts 18 and 26 and the average rate for districts 30 and 31, areas which are not comparable separately owing to changes in boundaries, the correlation between the two series is  $+.77$  with a probable error of  $\pm .046$ . This means that the agreement is 36 per cent better than chance. The mean rate for Shaw's series was 9, for the writer's 8.5. Areas 14, 34, and 37, all outlying areas, show a marked increase in delinquency. Areas 21, 24, 27, 31, and 35, mostly in the center of the city, show a marked decrease.

<sup>2</sup> Sixty-one students have made usable contributions to various parts of this paper, including work on this series. The writer is also indebted to many public officials and social workers in the different cities for making their records available for study.

# MAP I

## HAYNER SERIES (SMALL FIGURES)

RATES BASED ON THE NUMBER OF MALE JUVENILE DELINQUENTS BROUGHT BEFORE THE JUVENILE COURT OF KING COUNTY BETWEEN MAY 1, 1929 AND APRIL 30, 1932 FROM EACH AREA COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL MALE POPULATION 10 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE FOR THE AREA

## AREA GRADE NO. SCHOOLS

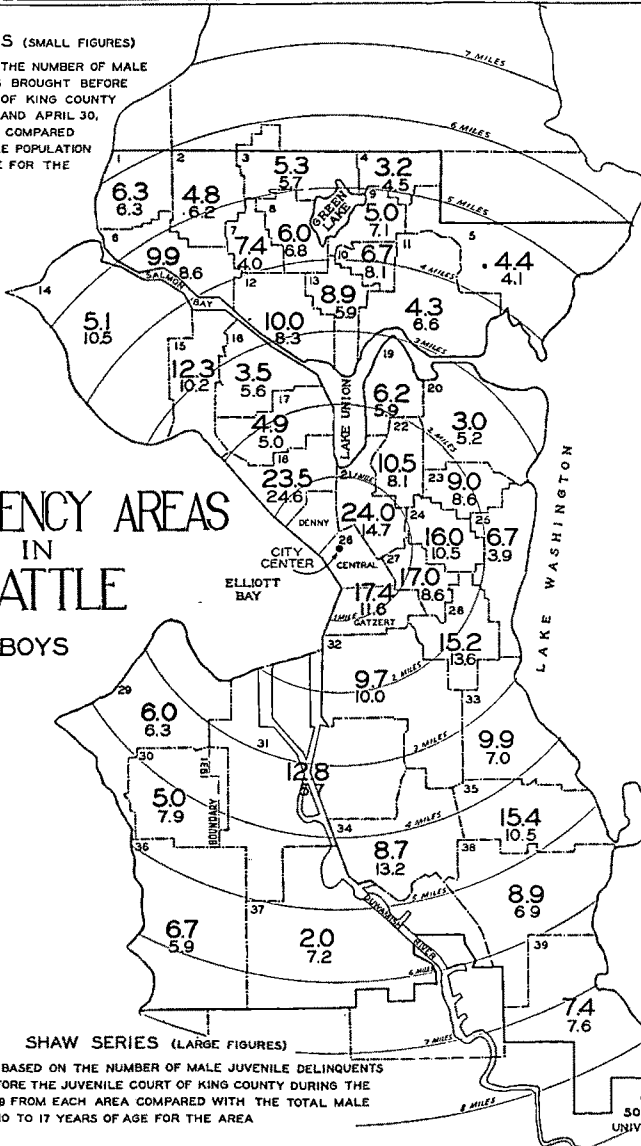
- 1 LOYAL HEIGHTS WEBSTER
- 2 WHITTIER SALMON BAY
- 3 GREENWOOD BAGLEY
- 4 FAIRVIEW
- 5 BRYANT RAVENNA LAURELHURST
- 6 ADAMS IRVING
- 7 WEST WOODLAND
- 8 JOHN B. ALLEN
- 9 GREEN LAKE
- 10 McDONALD
- 11 LATONA UNIVERSITY HEIGHTS
- 12 B.F. DAY
- 13 INTERLAKE
- 14 LAWTON MAGNOLIA
- 15 INTERBAY
- 16 NORTH QUEEN ANNE F. H. COE
- 17 JOHN HAY WEST QUEEN ANNE
- 18 MERCER TO WARREN, 1931
- 19 SEWARD
- 20 MONTLAKE STEVENS
- 21 MCGILVRA CASCADE SUMMIT
- 22 LOWELL
- 23 LONGFELLOW HARRISON
- 24 MINOR HORACE MANN
- 25 MADRONA LESCHI
- 26 DENNY TO WARREN, 1929
- 27 CENTRAL BAILEY GATZERT
- 28 PACIFIC WASHINGTON
- 29 RAINIER COLMAN
- 30 LAFAYETTE ALKI
- 31 JEFFERSON
- 32 YOUNGSTOWN SOUTH SEATTLE
- 33 BEACON HILL
- 34 JOHN MUIR HAWTHORNE
- 35 MAPLE GEORGETOWN
- 36 COLUMBIA WHITWORTH
- 37 GATEWOOD E. C. HUGHES FAUNTLEROY
- 38 HIGHLAND PARK CONCORD SOUTH PARK
- 39 BRINGTON VAN ASSELT
- 40 DUNLAP EMERSON

# DELINQUENCY AREAS IN SEATTLE BOYS

## SHAW SERIES (LARGE FIGURES)

RATES BASED ON THE NUMBER OF MALE JUVENILE DELINQUENTS BROUGHT BEFORE THE JUVENILE COURT OF KING COUNTY DURING THE YEARS 1926-29 FROM EACH AREA COMPARED WITH THE TOTAL MALE POPULATION 10 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE FOR THE AREA

CLIFFORD SHAW  
SOCIOLOGY DEPARTMENT  
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON  
1929



The series of 496 girl delinquents presented in Table I shows a correlation of  $+.60 \pm .066$  with Shaw's rates. This agreement is only 20 per cent better than chance. These rates are based on the number

TABLE I  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT GIRLS, PARENTAL-SCHOOL BOYS, AND  
DEPENDENT FAMILIES USING SAME AREAS  
AS CHARTED ON MAP I

Area No.	* Delinquent Girls	Parental- School Boys, 1919-24	Parental- School Boys, 1925-30	Dependent Families
1.....	1.2	2.4	1.5	1.9a*
2.....	2.4	1.8	0.6	a
3.....	2.5	1.5	1.4	1.4b
4.....	3.2	0.6	1.5	0.8c
5.....	1.0	0.5	1.6	c
6.....	3.0	3.9	2.0	a
7.....	2.0	2.5	1.7	b
8.....	1.0	0.0	0.2	b
9.....	1.9	0.3	2.1	c
10.....	1.4	0.4	0.8	0.9d
11.....	1.9	1.7	1.8	c
12.....	3.0	1.6	1.4	d
13.....	0.6	0.9	0.9	d
14.....	2.9a	2.7	1.5	1.8e
15.....	a	2.0	0.0	e
16.....	2.1	1.1	0.7	e
17.....	1.6	1.5	1.3	e
18.....	3.7	4.8	4.6	3.7f
19.....	1.8	1.7	2.1	0.8g
20.....	0.8	0.0	0.1	g
21.....	5.6	7.4	4.2	f
22.....	2.5	2.0	1.2	g
23.....	4.0	2.9	1.9	f
24.....	3.5	1.8	2.1	f
25.....	2.5	1.3	1.0	g
26.....	7.7	7.6	5.0	f
27.....	3.5	3.2	3.1	f
28.....	2.8	4.8	1.8	2.2h
29.....	1.8	1.1	1.2	1.6i
30.....	1.9	3.0	0.6	i
31.....	3.5	2.9	2.7	3.8j
32.....	1.7	2.1	2.8	j
33.....	2.1	1.6	0.7	h
34.....	1.4	2.8	1.2	3.1k
35.....	2.8	5.0	1.5	h
36.....	2.4	1.6	1.7	1.8
37.....	2.7	2.7	1.0	k
38.....	4.1	0.0	1.6	0.2l
39.....	1.5	0.0	2.1	l
Mean.....	2.0	2.2	1.7	1.8

\* Letters show combinations of areas.

of girl delinquents ten to eighteen years of age brought before the King County Juvenile Court between September, 1923, and June, 1930, from each area compared with the total girl population for the area as indicated by the 1927 school census. One of the interesting variations from the boy series is the very high rate in area 26. About four-fifths of the girls were sex delinquents while one-half of the boys were charged with some form of stealing.

Two successive parental-school series are also listed in Table I. The 1919-24 rates based on 369 boys show a correlation of  $+.77 \pm .044$  when compared with Shaw's rates (36 per cent better than chance); the 1925-30 series based on 341 boys, a correlation of  $+.74 \pm .048$ . These two sets of rates are based on boys sent to the Seattle Parental School from each area compared with the boy populations of the areas for 1922 and 1928, respectively. The following statement from the annual report of the King County Juvenile Court for 1914, together with these two series, show the persistence as in Chicago of high delinquency percentages in the central areas over a long period:

The most conspicuous example of a congested district which liberally sends its children into the Juvenile Court is to be found bordering the business district of the city. . . . During the last year [1914] 18 per cent of the children appearing in court cases came from that area though the same district contains only 3 per cent of the county population within the age jurisdiction of the Juvenile Court.

It will be noted that all these series show a high rate in the Warren Avenue area. Since the expansion of this district in 1929 to include the old Denny district it has become the highest-rate area in the city. This is an interstitial neighborhood reflecting the northward push of the business center. On the western rim of the area is Belltown, a rooming-house district with cheap hotels, secondhand stores, and houses of prostitution—a district in which “the pioneer gave way to the gold rushers, the gold rushers to the fishermen, the fishermen to the laborers.” The population of the area is composed largely of renters and is highly transient. Of the pupils entering the Warren Avenue school during 1931-32, 62.7 per cent left the school during the same year. Of all the schools in the city this was the highest percentage for mobility. “It is like teaching on a street car,” said one of the instructors. Table I also shows a high family-dependency

rate in the Warren Avenue district. These rates for a total of 1,931 dependent families are based on the families cleared through the Social Service Exchange from combinations of areas in 1930 compared with the total number of families in these districts as indicated by the federal census.

One of the interesting exceptions to Shaw's findings in other cities was the low rate of 5.7 in the Bailey Gatzert school district as compared with the rate of 27.7 in the rest of area 26. In the 1929-32 study the rate was again 5.7 in this district. The Bailey Gatzert district is a deteriorated section located immediately south and east of Pioneer Square. It shows the highest concentration of homicides, houses of prostitution, unidentified suicides, and cheap lodging-houses in Seattle.

Our children cannot sleep at night [complained Mr. Yoriaki Nakagawa, president of the Bailey Gatzert Parent-Teacher Association as quoted in the *Seattle Daily Times* for April 28, 1932] because of drunken noise-makers. So they have to go to sleep in school. We have a list of twenty places where there is much night life as you call it. We are going to ask the police if please they cannot be closed.

Ninety per cent of the boys in this school district are Japanese. The low delinquency rate seems to be accounted for by the strong family and community organization characteristic of this immigrant group. Of the 710 boys sent to the Parental School from Seattle during the period from 1919 to 1930, only 3, or 0.4 per cent, were Japanese. In 1930 the Japanese population was 2.3 per cent of the total population in Seattle. The following case studies of the 3 Japanese boy delinquents reveal the significant fact that in no instance did the boy come into vital contact with the racial colony:

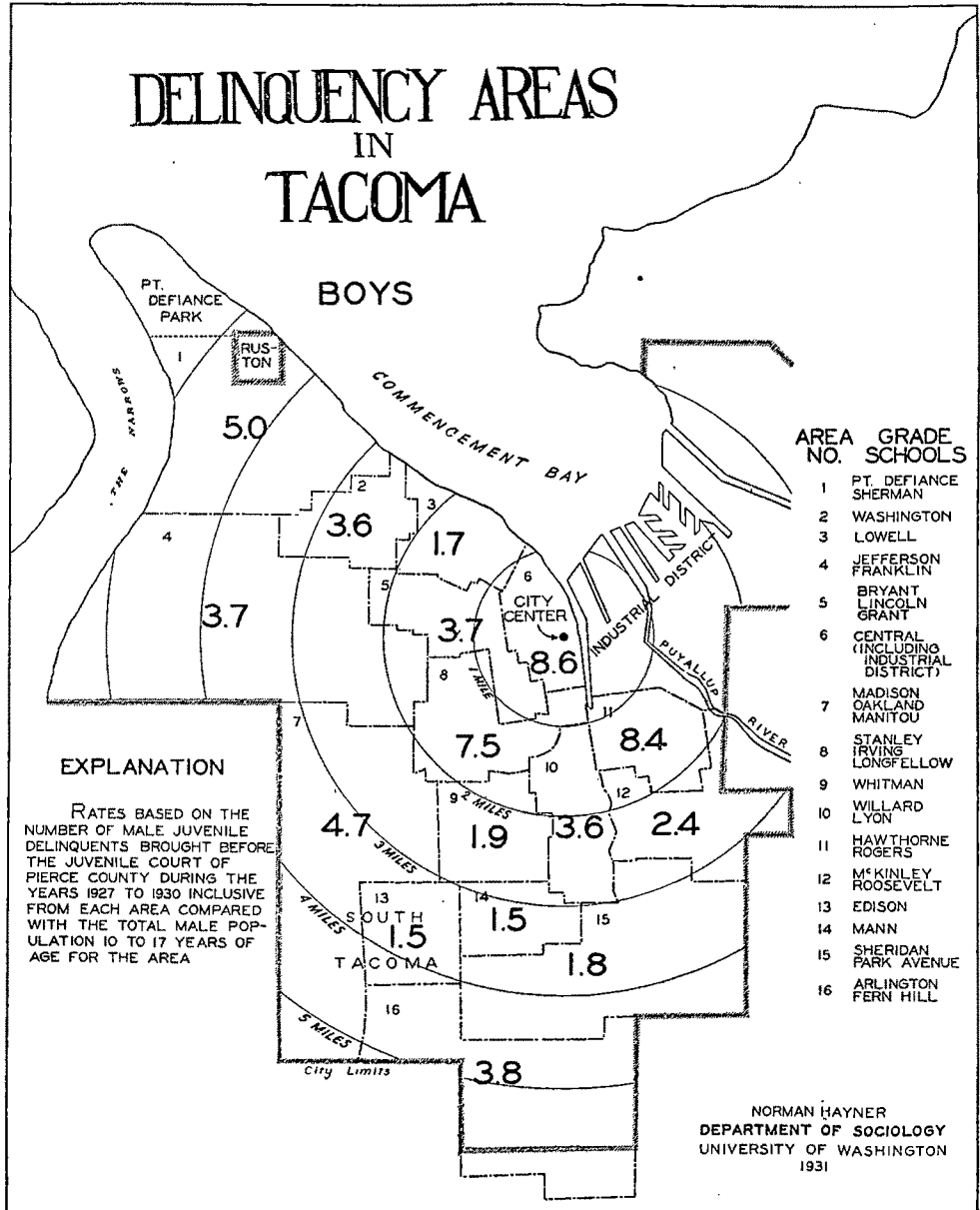
A's father was Japanese and his mother was white. Although he lived in the business section of the Japanese community, he had no friends among the Japanese and could not speak their language. In 1931 he was sent to the Washington State Reformatory for burglary.

B's home was in the central business district outside of the Japanese community. There were no Japanese boys with whom B could play. His first delinquency occurred when he was sent to the Japanese language school and was apparently an effort to gain status among the Japanese boys there. He took money from the cash register of his father's hotel and used it to treat the boys to supper. When released from the Parental School his father sent him back to Japan.

MAP II

# DELINQUENCY AREAS IN TACOMA

BOYS



C also lived outside the central Japanese community. Although there were a few Japanese families in the neighborhood, Jewish and Negro families predominated. C and his family lacked the restraining influence of the Japanese ghetto.<sup>3</sup>

Thirty-two miles south of Seattle on Puget Sound is Tacoma with a population of 106,817 in 1930. While Seattle is essentially a commercial community, Tacoma is primarily an industrial city with the manufacture of forest products as the principal economic base. Most of the lumber mills and other industries are located either on the tide flats at the mouth of the Puyallup River or in a narrow strip along the shore of Commencement Bay as far as the Tacoma Smelter in the separate town of Ruston. Another narrow tongue of industry and railroad property extends through a deep ravine southwest from the tide flats to the Northern Pacific car shops in South Tacoma. The residential areas spread out north and south from this valley over low plateaus. In general the geographic structure and the configuration of economic and cultural areas present simpler patterns in Tacoma than in Seattle.

The percentages for 275 boy delinquents charted on Map II corroborate Shaw's findings. In this series as in the Seattle studies school districts were combined to give a minimum boy population of at least 300. Area 6, with the highest rate, includes the central business district. A special study of area 11, just south of the principal industrial section, showed deteriorated houses, a declining population in the Hawthorne school district, low rents and a predominance of unskilled laborers, a high percentage of Italians in the Hawthorne and of Poles in the Rogers districts. The average rate for the five areas falling within the two-mile circle is 6.0, and the average rate for the eleven areas outside of this circle is 3.0.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> See Andrew W. Lind, "The Ghetto and the Slum," *Social Forces*, December, 1930, pp. 206-15, for similar findings in Honolulu. "In the area of disorganization just back of the city proper" the neighborhood of concentrated Japanese population had no delinquents, but in the neighborhood where "Japanese were mixed rather indiscriminately with the rest of the population" 3 of the 15 Japanese school children were brought before the court in one year.

Only 29 arrests in 1927 for California Japanese in the age group fifteen to nineteen are reported by Professor Walter G. Beach in *Oriental Crime in California*, 10. 84.

<sup>4</sup> The home addresses of 527 boy delinquents brought before the Juvenile Court of Spokane County from the city of Spokane during the years 1928, 1929, and 1930 show



A spot map of dependent families in Tacoma in 1930, based on the records of the Family Welfare Society, shows a marked concentration near the central business and industrial area. A spot map of Boy Scouts, on the other hand, shows relatively few spots in the center and concentration in the better residential areas.<sup>5</sup>

The rates for girl delinquents shown in Table II are based on 110 girls brought before the Juvenile Court of Pierce County for alleged delinquency during the years 1927-31, inclusive, compared with the girl population for each area as indicated by the school census. The other rates listed in Table II are based on 169 unofficial boy delinquents and are figured by the same method and cover the same period as the rates for official boy delinquents charted on Map II. The case of the ordinarily less serious unofficial delinquent is decided by the chief probation officer and is not brought before the Juvenile Court judge. Both of these series show high rates in districts 6 and 11. They show distinctly lower rates, however, in areas 1 and 8 than the series on Map II.

The high rate for unofficial boy delinquents in area 13 is to be accounted for by a watermelon-stealing affair on the waterfront. Eleven boys were involved. When the numbers in a series are small,

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a wider distribution than the delinquency spot maps for the other large cities of Washington. Although rates derived in the same way as those for Seattle and Tacoma vary from 4.1 to 12.5, the average rate for the nine areas lying within a two-mile circle from the city center is 8.0 and the average rate for the ten areas outside of this circle is 7.5. Study of a map showing use-districts in Spokane indicates that all the high-rate outlying areas are located either in, or adjacent to, a V-shaped segment of railroad and manufacturing property that extends east and northeast from the business center. This map also shows that the larger of the two first-class residential districts lies entirely within the two-mile circle.

The reader will note that in comparisons between cities it is the patterns made by rates within cities that are comparable and not the rates themselves. Owing to differences in the number of years involved, in the source of data, and in the methods of administration, absolute rates are not comparable between cities. Map I, e.g., shows both official and unofficial delinquents over three-year periods. Map II, in contrast, shows only official delinquents over a four-year period. For variations in administrative methods see the Children's Bureau bulletin, *Child Welfare in Selected Counties of Washington*, p. 59.

<sup>5</sup> A Seattle series based on the number of Boy Scouts from each area in 1928 compared with the total boy population twelve to eighteen years-of-age from the area in 1928 shows a correlation of  $-.50 \pm .080$  with Shaw's rates. This negative relationship, however, is only 14 per cent better than chance.

a single event like this tends to make a big difference in the rates. Such variations in rates are more frequent in the smaller centers than in the larger ones.<sup>6</sup>

The town of Ruston, an industrial satellite of Tacoma, had no official delinquents among its 84 boys. There were 7 unofficial offenders, however. Investigation revealed that the town marshal

TABLE II  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT GIRLS AND FOR UNOFFICIAL  
DELINQUENT BOYS USING SAME AREAS AS  
CHARTED ON MAP II

Area No.	Delinquent Girls	Unofficial Delinquent Boys
1.....	1.1	1.8
2.....	0.5	1.4
3.....	1.1	2.8
4.....	1.6	0.7
5.....	1.3	2.2
6.....	4.0	4.3
7.....	3.5	2.5
8.....	1.3	2.7
9.....	2.3	1.4
10.....	1.6	0.8
11.....	1.8	4.0
12.....	0.7	2.9
13.....	1.0	5.2
14.....	0.8	3.3
15.....	1.1	1.8
16.....	1.1	1.7
Mean.....	1.5	2.5

plays a significant rôle as preventive policeman in this immigrant neighborhood. He talks to the boys and girls both in school and out. If necessary he also talks with their parents. During his twenty-two years of service only 3 boys have been sent to jail.

Everett, twenty-eight miles north of Seattle, is built on a peninsula formed by the Snohomish River and Port Gardner Bay. It was incorporated in 1893 when the Great Northern reached Puget

<sup>6</sup> A study of Olympia, a city of 11,733 inhabitants 33 miles southwest of Tacoma, showed that the rate of delinquency was higher in the area of the city on the east side of the city, which showed the largest proportion of delinquents.

Sound at this point, grew rapidly until 1910 when it had a population of 24,814, and less rapidly to the last census which reported 30,567 people. In the early history of the community, Riverside on the east and Bayside on the west were like separate towns. Later business moved from both river and bay to the present center on a slight elevation in the vicinity of Hewitt and Colby avenues. The two sections deserted in this growth—the old Riverside business district especially—are cheaper, older, and less desirable. Saw and planing mills, which employed 26.5 per cent of the male wage-earners in 1930, together with various other industries, are located on both the Bayside and the Riverside rims of the peninsula.<sup>7</sup>

Rates for 87 boy delinquents brought before the Juvenile Court of Snohomish County from the city of Everett during the years 1928–30, inclusive, are shown in Table III. The rates for 161 boys recorded in a confidential book at the Everett police station during the same period are also listed in this table. Trivial offenses, such as stealing marbles from Woolworth's, swearing on Hewitt Avenue, or ringing doorbells at the Ohio Hotel, were eliminated from this series. The rates in both series are based on the number of delinquents from each school district, compared with the male population ten to seventeen years of age for the district.

The rates for girls in Table III are based on the number of girls five to seventeen years of age inclusive—only 3 of the 61 were less than ten—brought before the Women's Protective Bureau between January, 1926, and May, 1931, from each area, compared with the total girl population ten to seventeen years of age for the area. Although only a small percentage of these girls live in the Jefferson dis-

<sup>7</sup> Like Everett, Yakima, a city of 22,101 people, trading center for a rich irrigated valley in eastern Washington, has a relatively simple geographic and economic structure. Nob Hill, the better residential section on the west side of the city, presents an interesting contrast to the adjacent northwest quarter, which is made up largely of the working class. The former has a rate of 3.0 in a series of 200 boy delinquents and a rate of 0.2 in a series of 277 dependent families. The latter has rates of 16.2 and 4.3 in these two series.

A similar delinquency distribution is found in Wenatchee, another eastern Washington apple-raising center about half the size of Yakima. The Columbia school district, a business-class neighborhood located on a low hill, shows a rate of 2.2 in a series of 56 Juvenile Court boys. The Lincoln school district, an adjacent area of lower geographic and economic status, has the high rate of 10.1 in the same series.

trict, a large percentage commit their offenses in the hotels of this area.

All three series give the Monroe district, which includes the old Riverside business section, the highest rate for delinquency. A special study of this neighborhood shows a declining population, many vacant stores, low rents, a relatively high percentage of foreign-born, 35 per cent annual turnover in the Monroe grade-school population, no Camp Fire Girls or Boy Scouts, and many apartments or rooms of immoral repute. This district has the highest rate in the

TABLE III  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT BOYS, DELINQUENT GIRLS, AND  
DEPENDENT FAMILIES IN EVERETT BY GRADE-  
SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Area No.	Grade-School District	Delinquent Boys, Court Series	Delinquent Boys, Police Series	Delinquent Girls	Dependent Families
1.....	Washington	2.8	4.5	2.1	0.3
2.....	Lincoln	2.7	9.2	4.7	0.4
3.....	Garfield	6.0	10.7	2.6	0.9
4.....	Jefferson	5.4	8.1	1.8	0.6
5.....	Monroe	7.0	12.4	7.0	1.6
6.....	Jackson	4.0	8.3	2.1	0.4
7.....	Longfellow	5.7	7.9	2.4	1.1
Mean....	.....	4.8	8.7	3.2	0.8

series of chronic dependents shown in Table III. According to the 1930 census data it had, with the Longfellow district to the south, the highest rate for unemployment. It will be noted in contrast that the Washington district, a residential section, has consistently low rates in all the series.<sup>8</sup>

Ninety-four miles north of Seattle on Bellingham Bay is Bellingham, a city slightly larger than Everett. It is the leading market town in the northern part of the region. It is also supported by diversified industries of which lumber mills and fisheries are the most important. The main part of Bellingham covers an area of about six square miles. One arm of the city stretches two and one-half

<sup>8</sup> See delinquency rates for Everett, Everett, and Bellingham in Table III of *Statistical Abstract of Washington and King Counties*. The rates for 64 Snohomish County offenders listed

miles southwest along Bellingham Bay to the one-time boom town of South Bellingham. Another arm reaches eastward three miles to the saw-mill neighborhood of Silver Beach on Lake Whatcom.<sup>9</sup>

in Table A are a continuation of the court series presented in Table III and were derived in the same way.

TABLE A  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT BOYS IN SNOHOMISH COUNTY BY GRADE-SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Area No.	Grade-School District	Rate	Area No.	Grade-School District	Rate
1.....	Stanwood	0.3	8.....	Hartford and Lake Stevens	7.1
2.....	Arlington	1.2	9.....	Everett (see Table III)	4.8
3.....	Darrington	1.1	10.....	Lowell	4.0
4.....	Lakewood	1.4	11.....	Snohomish	1.0
5.....	Marysville	1.6	12.....	Monroe	3.3
6.....	Granite Falls	4.9	13.....	Edmonds	0.2
7.....	East Everett	4.0	14.....	Other districts	0.0

It will be noted that the Hartford and Lake Stevens districts had a rate in the same series slightly higher than the Monroe district in Everett. The prosecuting attorney told the writer that at one time during the three-year period the whole track team was brought into court from this district. Another interesting point is that 5 boys from Edmonds appeared before the Juvenile Court of King County during this period. Edmonds is located just north of the King County line and is more closely integrated with Seattle than with Everett.

The rates for 379 boys brought before the Juvenile Court of King County during the years 1927-32, inclusive, from districts outside of Seattle are shown in Table B.

TABLE B  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT BOYS IN KING COUNTY BY GRADE-SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Area No.	Grade-School District	Rate	Area No.	Grade-School District	Rate
1.....	North Seattle*	3.6	9.....	South Seattle*	8.2
2.....	Bothell*	11.9	10.....	Renton*	7.2
3.....	Kirkland	10.5	11.....	Kent*	7.7
4.....	Redmond	6.0	12.....	Hobart-Selleck*	2.9
5.....	Bellevue*	2.3	13.....	Black Diamond	13.8
6.....	Issaquah*	6.3	14.....	Auburn*	8.0
7.....	Snoqualmie*	1.7	15.....	Enumclaw	2.2
8.....	Vashon*	6.1	16.....	Other districts	0.0

\* More than one school district.

It will be noted that the mining community of Black Diamond has the highest rate. Bothell and Kirkland, which also have high rates, are dormitory suburbs of Seattle. Farming is the economic base for most of the low-rate areas.

<sup>9</sup> On Grays Harbor at the southwestern tip of the Puget Sound region are located the twin cities of Aberdeen and Hoquiam with a combined population of 34,489. The lumber industry is especially dominant here. With Hoquiam cut by one river and Aberdeen by two, the geographic structure is complex as in Bellingham. A series of 123 delinquents, studied by methods similar to those in Everett, puts the finger on the Lincoln

Table IV shows the rates, derived in a way similar to those in Everett, for a series of 132 boys ten to seventeen years of age apprehended by the police for alleged delinquency during 1930-31. It

TABLE IV  
RATES FOR DELINQUENT BOYS, DELINQUENT GIRLS, AND  
DEPENDENT FAMILIES IN BELLINGHAM BY  
SCHOOL-CENSUS DISTRICTS

Area No.	Grade Schools Located in District	Delinquent Boys	Delinquent Girls	Dependent Families
1.....	Birchwood	5.5	3.1	7.9
2.....	Roosevelt } Sunnyland }	5.4	3.5	14.2
3.....	Columbia	3.6	0.5	9.1
4.....	Washington } Roeder }	8.6	4.5	12.0
5.....	.....	5.0	4.2	6.6
6.....	Lincoln } Franklin }	8.3	4.5	9.3
7.....	Silver Beach	7.5	7.3	16.5
8.....	Sehome } Normal Training }	3.1	7.1	6.2
9.....	Lowell	2.6	1.1	4.7
10.....	.....	4.4	2.1	13.9
11.....	Larrabee	9.1	5.8	16.0
Mean.....	.....	5.7	4.3	10.6

also shows the rates for a series of 89 girls coming to the attention of the police matron during the same period. The family dependency rates in Table IV are based on a series of 1,054 families receiving free flour from April 23 to June 30, 1932. The number of dependent

district as the highest in Hoquiam and on the Franklin district as the highest in Aberdeen. The former is a low-lying working-class area between a steep hill and the Hoquiam River. The latter includes part of the central business district. Although the City of Bellingham is a small city, it is a typical example of a city in the Puget Sound region and is not yet subject to a great degree of detailed demarcations.

families from each district was compared with the estimated total number of families for the area, using school and federal census data.

Although the rates for delinquent boys in areas 4 and 6, immediately west and east of the business district, are high, it is interesting that the highest rate for boys is found in the Larrabee district, which includes much of South Bellingham. If the boundary of this district were moved one block farther north, the rate would be sharply increased and the already low rate for the Lowell area which contains the attractive South Garden Street residential neighborhood would be markedly reduced. It will be noted that the Lowell district is lowest and the Larrabee district next to the highest in the family-dependency series. Many of the workers in South Bellingham are employed in some aspect of the fishing industry.

Silver Beach, in the extremity of the other arm of Bellingham, has the highest rate for girls, a high rate for boys, and the highest rate for family dependency. Many of the wage-earners in this district are employed in the saw mills on Lake Whatcom.<sup>10</sup>

In conclusion, geographic studies of juvenile delinquents have practical significance in that they point out danger spots in community organization.

<sup>10</sup> Peripheral concentration of the homes of delinquents was also noted in a number of smaller cities in Washington. Ninety-two boy offenders brought before the Juvenile Court of Clarke County from Vancouver, Washington (population 15,766), showed a tendency to concentrate in the southwest and west parts of the city near lumber mills and railroad yards and also in the northeast and southeast sections. There was no concentration of delinquents adjacent to the business center.

## THE CHICAGO "BLACK BELT" AS A POLITICAL BATTLEGROUND

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### ABSTRACT

The political significance of the Negro in Chicago is shown by the fact that one in every twelve of the adult citizens in the city is a Negro. Making allowance for the factor of mobility, the Negroes in Chicago have shown a higher participation in elections than have the whites. Although many come to the city without electoral experience, their political education proceeds rapidly. One of the badges of their changed status in the North is the ballot box. Negro women as well as Negro men show an intense interest in politics. Among the reasons for this interest is the solidarity, which is in part a result of race prejudice, in part the product of compact community life, and in part the manifestation of race consciousness. Some of the factors which have developed this interest in voting have also determined party affiliations. Those whose memories of the early recognition received at the hands of the Republican party still remain vivid are loyal to that party. Migrants who have had bitter experiences in the South refuse to change their Republican allegiance under any circumstances. A few of the colored voters deserted Hoover because of his lily-white policies. Economic status does not have much influence upon voting behavior of Negroes in the city. A few in the younger generation are not moved by Republican traditions.

The Negro population of the city of Chicago has increased so rapidly during the last two decades that it has come to be a very important factor in local politics. Since most of the colored migrants came from southern states in which they were segregated, discriminated against in educational and social affairs, and virtually deprived of the right to vote, their political behavior in their new environment presents a number of interesting questions. Like the immigrants who came from foreign countries, the Negroes who came to Chicago from the South were largely in the prime of their lives. Consequently, there were relatively fewer Negroes in the city who had not reached voting age than there were native whites.<sup>1</sup> Unlike the foreign-born immigrants, practically all the colored migrants were citizens of the United States. As a result of these conditions, the relative importance of the Negro vote was greater than the mere population figures might indicate. This is clearly brought out in Table I, which shows the percentage that the Negroes were of the total population and of the total eligible vote.

<sup>1</sup> *Fifteenth Census of the United States, Population Bulletin—Illinois, 1930, p. 42.*



The relative importance of the potential Negro vote in Chicago trebled in the first three decades of the twentieth century. The huge increment in the absolute number of the estimated eligible colored voters between 1910 and 1920 was due largely to the adoption of woman suffrage in 1913 and to the flood of newcomers after 1914. The increase in the next decade was the result of the continued migration of many colored persons of voting age. The net result of these factors was that in 1930 the city of Chicago had the second-largest colored population of any city in the world.<sup>2</sup> When it is con-

TABLE I\*  
TOTAL POPULATION AND ESTIMATED ELECTORATE IN CHICAGO  
BY COLOR, 1900-1930

YEAR	CITY		NEGRO		PER CENT	
	Total Population (1)	Total Adult Citizens (2)	Population (3)	Adult Citizens (4)	Column 3 of Column 1 (5)	Column 4 of Column 2 (6)
1900† . . . . .	1,698,575	424,424	30,150	12,414	1.8	2.9
1910† . . . . .	2,185,283	491,793	44,103	17,845	2.0	3.6
1920 . . . . .	2,701,705	1,367,515	109,594	81,872	4.1	6.0
1930 . . . . .	3,376,438	1,906,366	233,903	165,959	6.9	8.7

\* Figures compiled from the population volumes of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth censuses.

† Adult male citizens only.

sidered that one in every twelve of the adult citizens of Chicago is a Negro, it is clear that here is a factor of great political significance.

What interest would these invaders show in the politics of the city and the state? It has been shown by a number of studies that interest in voting varies with education and economic status. As a rule, the higher the educational and economic status, the higher is the participation in elections.<sup>3</sup> Would these findings apply to the colored

<sup>2</sup> Only Greater New York, which is composed of five counties, some of which are not contiguous, has a larger colored population, and Manhattan Island alone has fewer Negroes than Chicago. In 1930 Manhattan Borough had 224,670 Negroes and Greater New York 327,706.

<sup>3</sup> H. F. Gosnell, *Getting Out the Vote* (Chicago, 1927), pp. 96-100; *Why Europe Votes* (Chicago, 1930), p. 170; B. A. Arneson, "Non-voting in a Typical Ohio Community," *American Political Science Review*, XIX, 816-25.

migrants? If so, a rather low participation might be expected because many of the newcomers had had very limited educational opportunities and the great bulk of them were compelled to find employment as laborers, porters, and servants.<sup>4</sup> Additional support to this view might be found in the fact that the migrants were new to urban life and unfamiliar with the racial attitudes of the northern whites. On the average, it takes a foreign-born white person ten years to complete the naturalization process. How soon would the colored migrants take advantage of the privileges of citizenship?

The facts reveal a striking situation. Making allowance for the factor of mobility, the Negroes in Chicago have shown a higher participation in elections than have the whites. On the basis of figures for the Second Ward, which contains the highest proportion of Negroes, it was estimated that 72 per cent of the eligible Negroes were registered in 1920 as compared with 66 per cent for the entire city, and that ten years later the respective rates were 77 and 68.<sup>5</sup> It is clear that the voting behavior of the colored migrants in Chicago does not follow the usual patterns but is molded by a special set of conditions to which attention is now turned.

The politician-apologist for the virtual disfranchisement of the Negro in the South usually states that the Negroes do not vote because they have lost interest in politics. Some of the Negroes themselves complained about the political apathy of the colored people in the South.<sup>6</sup> If it can be shown that a large proportion of the colored voters in Chicago came from the far South where the par-

<sup>4</sup> According to the *Fifteenth Census of the United States, Occupation Statistics, Illinois, 1930*, 29 per cent of the gainfully employed male Negroes, ten years of age and over, were found in domestic and personal service in Chicago and nearly two-thirds were found in manufacturing and mechanical industries, transportation, and trade, largely as unskilled laborers, porters, and semiskilled operatives. Three-quarters of the gainfully employed women were in domestic service.

<sup>5</sup> Estimates based on 1921 ward lines. Census figures as given by census tracts were fitted to ward lines as closely as possible. In C. E. Merriam and H. F. Gosnell, *Non-Voting* (Chicago, 1924), p. 37, it is stated that 7.6 per cent of the non-registered adult citizens interviewed lacked the legal residence qualifications. A non-published tabulation for this study showed that 27.4 per cent of the non-registered adult Negroes lacked the residence qualifications. These ratios were used to estimate the number of eligible voters, i.e., adult citizens who fulfilled the residence qualifications.

<sup>6</sup> P. Lewinson, *Race, Class and Party* (London and New York, 1932), pp. 107, 124 ff.

ticipation of Negroes in politics is very slight, then it is reasonable to conclude that the migrant Negro leaves his political apathy behind when he comes to the North, or else that he was not as apathetic as he was reported to be. In order to study this question a special tabulation was made from the election registers of the place of birth of nearly ten thousand persons living in districts which were overwhelmingly colored. These data are presented in Table II, which shows that the migrants were born for the most part in the agricul-

TABLE II\*  
PLACE OF BIRTH OF 9,834 NEGRO REGISTERED  
VOTERS IN CHICAGO IN 1930

Regions and Selected States	Number	Per Cent of Total
South Atlantic.....	1,663	17.0
East South Central.....	4,565	46.3
West South Central.....	1,693	17.3
Middle Atlantic, East North Central (omit- ting Illinois).....	628	6.4
Illinois.....	628	6.4
New England.....	33	0.3
West North Central, Mountain Pacific (omitting Missouri).....	218	2.2
Missouri.....	363	3.7
Washington, D.C.....	43	0.4
Total.....	9,834	100.0

\* Data from 1930 registration books of 24 selected precincts located in 19 census tracts which contained 81.1-98.9 per cent Negro population according to *Census Data of Chicago* (1930).

tural states of the South where the smallest proportion of the Negro population exercised the franchise. Nearly one-half of them were born in the East South Central states, and Mississippi alone was the birthplace of one-sixth of them. According to an additional tabulation of these data by length of residence in Cook County, it was discovered that about one-quarter of those born in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana had been in the city for less than five years and less than 15 per cent for more than fifteen years. Of those born in the North, or in such border states as Maryland and Kentucky, where colored people voted freely, over half had been in the city for more than fifteen years. This clearly shows that these new

Chicago voters came largely from rural districts where they had had few opportunities for voting experience.<sup>7</sup>

While some of the migrants may have been timid about starting to vote, their political education proceeded rapidly. To some of the race-conscious Negroes the ballot box is the symbol of emancipation, a guaranty of equality of opportunity. In the South the ballot box is a token of class stratification based upon color. The bitter days of the reconstruction period after the Civil War show how deeply seated this notion is in the mores of the southern whites.<sup>8</sup> To them the symbols of democracy have a revolutionary significance as far as race relations are concerned. When a Negro migrates from the South to the North, he goes through a transformation. He must find a new job, a new place to live, new friends, and new amusements. One of the badges of his changed life is the ballot box. Of course, the great interest in voting which the new migrants display is partly the result of efficient political organization,<sup>9</sup> but the background and experiences of the migrants make them responsive to the appeals of the party-workers.

Colored women from the South shared with their men folks an intense interest in politics. A canvass in selected districts in Chicago showed that there were relatively fewer colored women who were antisuffragists than there were white women who took this position.<sup>10</sup> On the other hand, some Negro women who brought with them bitter memories of the life in the South were ardent suffragettes. One of the most militant of these was the late Mrs. Ida Wells-Barnett who was born in Mississippi of parents who had been slaves, and who became nationally known as a teacher, journalist, social worker, lecturer, agitator for woman suffrage, promoter of colored women's clubs, and a political organizer. While she was still in the South one of her editorials brought such a storm of protest among the whites that a mob destroyed her printing plant and threatened death to

<sup>7</sup> For a typical attitude of a migrant who was anxious to vote see Merriam and Gosnell, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

<sup>8</sup> Lewinson, *op. cit.*, pp. 82 ff.

<sup>9</sup> Lack of space prevents the discussion of the political organization of the Negroes here.

<sup>10</sup> A special statistical elaboration in connection with the *Non-Voting* study of the reasons for not voting given by the persons who have never voted in their lives.

anyone who attempted to publish the paper which she was editing at the time.<sup>11</sup> Typical of her vigor of expression is the following passage on the value of the franchise:

With no sacredness of the ballot there can be no sacredness of human life itself. For if the strong can take the weak man's ballot, when it suits his purpose to do so, he will take his life also. . . . The mob says: "This people has no vote with which to punish us or the consenting officers of the law, therefore we indulge our brutal instincts, give free rein to race prejudice and lynch, hang, burn them when we please."<sup>12</sup>

Another reason for the great interest shown by the Negroes of Chicago in politics is the strong racial solidarity which they have developed. This solidarity is based in part on the operation of race prejudice in the North. No matter how divided they may be among themselves on issues which do not affect their general place in society, they are united in facing the white world when it presents a hostile front. In theory the state of Illinois does not permit race discriminations in places offering services to the public,<sup>13</sup> but in practice Negroes are sometimes limited in choosing their places of abode, in finding places to eat, and in selecting their amusements. When seeking homes in Chicago, the colored migrants were not forced by law to settle in certain parts of the city, but, like the Jews who formed their ghettos and like the Italians who formed their immigrant colonies, they settled in communities which were largely their own. Because of this liking for their own people and because of difficulty in finding satisfactory places elsewhere, there grew up on the south side of the city the so-called "Black Belt," not as a matter of law but as a matter of fact. The Negroes formed this community as an accommodation to the northern urban environment. The radial growth of the Negro population has not been as rapid as that of some of the foreign-born groups because there is greater resistance to the dispersion of colored residents. In 1910 the main Negro community extended in a narrow line for about six miles south of the center of the

<sup>11</sup> Ida Wells-Barnett, *Southern Horrors: Lynch Law in All Its Phases* (New York Age Print, 1892).

<sup>12</sup> Wells-Barnett, *How Enfranchisement Stops Lynching* (Original Rights Magazine June, 1910; New York: Charles Lenz).

<sup>13</sup> Chicago Commission on Race Relations, *The Negro in Chicago* (Chicago, 1922), p. 232.

city.<sup>14</sup> Twenty years later the community extended in a much broader strip of territory for about eight miles.<sup>15</sup> Less than 10 per cent of the total population is white in the three census community areas that comprise the principal part of the "Black Belt."<sup>16</sup>

While the South Side Negro community contains persons of widely divergent interests and backgrounds, its compactness has facilitated economic, social, and political solidarity. Between 85 and 90 per cent of the total colored population of the city live within a relatively small area bounded by railroad properties, parks, and resistant white communities. Several lines of communication unite the different parts of the district. The South Side Elevated runs through the center as a main artery, and the surface and bus lines furnish the minor arteries. Large numbers of colored persons have automobiles, telephones, and according to the census<sup>17</sup> about 44 per cent have radios. The community also has its weekly newspapers. As far as the physical means of communication are concerned, the main section is closely knit. The smaller communities on the West and North sides are more isolated and hence more backward in the development of group consciousness.

Although the Negroes living in the South Side area are not homogeneous from the standpoint of cultural attainments,<sup>18</sup> they are brought together by hostile acts of the white world. Because the Negro world is smaller than the white world, an individual in it has a wider range of acquaintanceships through the various social, economic, and other stratifications than a white person in a similar position in his own world. In the colored community, unskilled laborers,

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 107.

<sup>15</sup> There were a few Negroes in the Woodlawn area in 1910. In 1930 the main South Side community and the Woodlawn community were practically continuous. The outward movement was more in the form of a mass movement than with minority groups which were less visible.

<sup>16</sup> For definition of census communities see *Fifteenth Census: Illinois*.

<sup>17</sup> *Census Data of Chicago* (1930). In the census tracts on the South Side, which have a population of 80 per cent or more Negroes, there were 44,097 families and 19,342 radios.

<sup>18</sup> E. F. Frazier, in *The Negro Family in Chicago* (Chicago, 1932), has ably demonstrated that succession is taking place within the Negro community and that individual members may be differentiated on the basis of occupation, color, education, homeownership, literacy, and many other factors.

domestic servants, gamblers, policemen, prostitutes, clerical workers, bootleggers, teachers, mail-carriers, lawyers, business men, clergymen, and others are all surrounded by a wall of prejudice erected by the white world. A discriminatory act or threat against any member of the group, whatever his standing may be, is regarded as an attack upon the entire community. As one young colored attorney put it, "The Negro on the South Side is conscious of the Negro on the West Side, and all over Chicago, in fact, all over the United States. Some day I hope to see the time when the wrong of one Negro will be the concern of every Negro in the United States."<sup>19</sup> This solidarity is strengthened by such exclusive race organizations as the Pullman Porters' Union, the colored churches, the fraternal lodges, and various social clubs.

The politicians have found that in the South Side area it is easy for them to reach a large proportion of the voters at political meetings, easy to spread a rumor about the racial attitudes of a given candidate, easy to engage in conversation about politics, easy to find persons interested in the details of registration and voting, and easy to demonstrate that on election day the popular thing to do is to vote. There may be many in the district who have had limited opportunities for schooling, and some of the older ones may neither read nor write, but they are kept informed regarding political matters by a variety of face-to-face contacts. In church, at a lodge meeting, on the street corner, in their place of employment, at a restaurant, at home with their children who have just come from school, or at a place of amusement, they learn about the political issues and the candidates of the day.

Some of the same factors which have developed among the colored citizens of Chicago an intense interest in voting have also determined their actual choice on election day. Whether or not the new voters would vote in accordance with the traditional loyalty of their race to the Republican party has depended upon the length of their stay in the South before coming northward, the extent of the recognition which they received from the Republican party during and after the reconstruction period, their social position in the Negro group before coming to the city, the treatment which they received at the hands of the Democrats in the South, the recency of their arrival in

<sup>19</sup> Interview.

the city, the attitude of the local politicians toward them, the policies of the national administration on matters of race interest, and the recommendations of their own leaders. How partisan choices may have been affected by some of these conditions can be illustrated by a number of individual cases.

A direct connection between loyalty to the Republican party and reconstruction in the South can be traced in the case of a number of Chicago citizens. One of the picturesque figures in the city is the "old warrior," former Congressman John R. Lynch, who at the age of eighty-six is still active at his law practice and whose advice is still sought in political matters. Lynch was born a slave in Louisiana and came to Chicago in 1912 after a political career in the state of Mississippi and at Washington, D.C., which lasted more than twenty-five years.<sup>20</sup> In a personal interview, the white-haired veteran said that he was a Republican by conviction in national elections, but in local elections he voted for the man.<sup>21</sup> Major Lynch represents the type of Negro whose memories of the early recognition received at the hands of the Republican party still remain vivid.

With some of the citizens of the South Side, Republicanism has become a fetish. Under no circumstances should the party to which they have been attached by tradition be deserted. Or to put it negatively, in no election, national or state, should a Negro vote for a Democratic candidate. Because of a faction quarrel within the Republican party at the time of the mayoralty election of 1923, some of the colored leaders urged their followers to support the Democratic ticket.<sup>22</sup> In spite of this active campaign of propaganda designed to change their traditional Republicanism for a special occasion, only many refused to move an inch.<sup>23</sup>

<sup>20</sup> J. R. Lynch, *Facts on Reconstruction* (New York, 1914). Major Lynch served as justice of the peace, state representative, speaker of the House, congressman, temporary chairman of the Republican National Convention of 1884, auditor of the treasury for the Navy Department, and major in the United States volunteers during the Spanish-American War.

<sup>21</sup> See also his views on politics reported in the *Chicago Tribune*, April 20, 1928; *Chicago Whip*, June 9, 1928; *Oklahoma Eagle*, October 15, 1932.

<sup>22</sup> *Chicago Tribune*, March 17, 1923; *Chicago Defender*, March 24, 1923; and *Chicago Whip*, March 31, 1923.

<sup>23</sup> A young laborer from Alabama told an investigator at the time that he could never vote for a Democrat as long as he kept his memory. The Democrats he knew in Alabama were the "imps of Satan." For other cases see Merriam and Gosnell, *op. cit.*, pp. 139-40.



What do the election returns show about the number of migrants whose loyalty to the Republican party was of the sort which has just been described? In presidential elections the figures show that the Republican party can count on anywhere from 70 to 95 per cent of the votes cast in the sections inhabited largely by Negroes. In order to obtain data for the last five presidential elections which were as nearly comparable as possible, selected voting precincts were matched with census tracts whose population was 80 per cent or more colored in 1920. The proportion of Negroes in these areas was less in 1916 and greater in the years following 1920. According to the 1930 census, these same areas were 90 per cent or more colored. This means that the Republican vote for 1916 was underestimated.

In 1916 and in 1920 the colored voters registered a protest against a Democratic national administration. In 1912 Woodrow Wilson had expressed "his earnest wish to see justice accorded to Negroes,"<sup>24</sup> but his first administration was regarded as extremely disappointing by Negro leaders.<sup>25</sup> In the election of 1924 there was a slight falling-off in the size of the Republican vote in the districts inhabited largely by Negroes. President Coolidge was compelled to carry the load of his predecessor's unpopular racial policies.<sup>26</sup> Four years later a considerable proportion of the colored voters abandoned their traditional Republicanism. Herbert Hoover received in 1928 about 15 per cent less of their votes than Coolidge did in 1924. In the Republican convention it was apparent that the Hoover forces were trying to encourage the "lily white" Republican organizations in the South.<sup>27</sup> After the convention the control of Hoover's campaign in

<sup>24</sup> *Crisis* No. 5 (1912), p. 75.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.* No. 13 (1916), pp. 16-17. Contrary to the precedent set by President Cleveland, President Wilson failed to appoint Negroes to such positions as registrar of the Treasury and minister to Haiti. The administrative departments in Washington, D.C., also introduced a practice of segregating the colored civil service employees.

<sup>26</sup> President Harding's speech in Birmingham in October, 1921, was viewed with great alarm by colored leaders, and his official actions showed that he agreed with the Taft policy of insisting that Negroes appointed to federal positions in the South were acceptable to the white communities (*Negro Year Book*, 1912, p. 30; *Chicago Whip*, November 5, 1921).

<sup>27</sup> Among the colored delegates who were not seated was Stephen D. McGill from Jacksonville, Fla., the brother of Nathan K. McGill, the business manager of the *Chicago Defender*. During the campaign the *Defender* came out openly against Hoover in an editorial which stated that the Republican party had allied itself with the Ku Klux

the South was in the hands of Colonel Horace Mann, who believed that the South could be carried under white leadership. Four years in the presidency did not improve Hoover's popularity with the colored voters. The fact that the "solid South" was broken in 1928 made the Republican managers all the more determined to build up a lily-white movement in the southern states. The administration tried to eliminate certain colored leaders in the South. Particularly objectionable was the nomination to the United States Supreme Court of Judge John J. Parker of North Carolina who was quoted as having said in 1920: "The Negro as a class does not desire to enter politics. The Republican party of North Carolina does not desire him to do so."<sup>28</sup>

While the size of the traditional Republican vote in the "Black Belt" is at least three-fourths of the total, the fact that the remaining fourth was secured by the Democratic party in the last two presidential elections deserves further analysis. In spite of the fact that Alfred E. Smith was attractive personally because of his bitter denunciation of the Klan and because of the treatment which Negroes in Harlem received at the hands of the Tammany organization,<sup>29</sup> the Democratic party as a national organization contained elements which race-conscious Negroes could not very well defend. Some of the colored voters who supported the Democratic ticket in Chicago were undoubtedly influenced by local considerations. In New York City, where the Democratic party with rare exceptions controls all the local patronage, there are many inducements offered to Negroes to forsake their customary allegiance to the Republican party.<sup>30</sup> In Chicago, on the other hand, the margin between the two major parties has been a close one, and the colored voters as a rule have not found it necessary to change their views regarding the party of Lincoln, the emancipator, in order to be on the winning side. In 1915,

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Klan and with racial and religious bigots (November 3, 1928). See also issues of October 20 and 27, 1928; *Chicago Defender*, October 20, 1928; and *Chicago Tribune*, October 31, 1928.

<sup>28</sup> *Chicago Defender*, May 31, 1930.

<sup>29</sup> *Chicago Daily News*, October 19, 1928, and *Chicago Daily Tribune*, November 2, 1928.

<sup>30</sup> Colored Citizens Non-partisan Committee for Re-election of Mayor Walker, *New York City and the Colored Citizens* (1929).

about the time that the migration began to assume large proportions, the Republican party was in control of the state government and of most of the local offices in Chicago. However, in certain parts of the city determined efforts were made by the Democrats to win over some of the colored voters. In 1930 there began a series of Democratic victories which could not help but attract the attention of the South Side citizens. While the great mass of the colored voters in

TABLE III  
SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND PER CENT DEMOCRATIC OF  
THREE SOUTH SIDE CENSUS COMMUNITIES

	CENSUS COMMUNITY		
	35	38	40
Northern and southern boundaries* . . . . .	26-39 St.	39-51 St.	51-63 St.
Median rental in 1930* . . . . .	\$35.28	\$44.48	\$57.50
Homes owned in 1930 (per cent)* . . . . .	10.8	9.8	8.1
Unemployed in 1930 per 1,000* . . . . .	41.09	36.58	25.16
Per cent Negro in 1930* . . . . .	89.1	94.9	92.2
Per cent of total vote cast for Democratic candidate:†			
For mayor in 1927 . . . . .	6.5	6.4	29.6
For president in 1928 . . . . .	29.3	24.6	29.8
For U.S. senator in 1930 . . . . .	27.6	22.6	26.9
For mayor in 1931 . . . . .	16.2	12.1	11.4
For president in 1932‡ . . . . .	25.0	20.0	22.0

\* *Census Data of Chicago*, 1930.

† The election returns by precincts were fitted as closely as possible to the census communities. Compiled from *Daily News Almanac*.

‡ Some minor estimates were made for 1932. Figures were obtained from *Public Service Record*, December 5, 1932.

the city remained impervious to these shifts in party power, one-quarter did not. Especially among the younger migrants to the city there were some who did not feel themselves particularly bound by the traditions connected with the early history of the Republican party. They looked at present-day politics in a realistic fashion.

An analysis of the Democratic vote in recent elections in Chicago will show how few have forsaken their traditional political views. The figures given in Table III show that economic status does not have much influence upon the voting behavior of Negroes in the city. The Democratic party has about as difficult a time in the lower rental areas as it does in the higher rental areas.<sup>31</sup> Only in the 1931

<sup>31</sup> Community 40 had more whites in 1927 than in 1930.

election did the Democratic party win a few more votes in the depreciated residential area than it did in the outlying district where unemployment was less and rents were higher.

As yet the Negroes who vote the Democratic ticket are in a distinct minority in Chicago. The South Side is still regarded as Republican territory. Since this is so, the size of the Negro vote becomes a factor of added importance when it is considered in connection with Republican primaries rather than in connection with general elections. While only 8.7 per cent of the total adult citizens were Negro in 1930, it is probable that nearly 17 per cent of the Republican primary voters were Negro in that year.<sup>32</sup> Inasmuch as there have been many bitter factional quarrels in the Republican party of Cook County, the faction which could count on a large share of the vote from the "Black Belt" was in a favored position. In the Republican primaries this area was the great political battleground.

The foregoing paragraphs have indicated something about the political attitudes and behavior of the thousands of Negroes who have migrated to Chicago. What has been taking place in Chicago has been typical of what is going on in many northern cities of the country. In the case of the older generations, the traditions of Abraham Lincoln as the emancipator and the bitter disappointment at the collapse of the reconstruction régimes have conditioned them against any association with the Democratic party. Disfranchisement, lynchings, Jim Crow laws, the cropping system, and other social and economic practices are laid at the door of the Democratic party. On the other hand, a few in the younger generation are not moved by Republican traditions. They see a new Republicanism which cuts down the representation of the southern states in national conventions and which encourages lily-white organizations. Whether Democratic or Republican, the Negro in Chicago shows a great interest in exercising the franchise. While this interest is partly the result of party organization, it is also the product of a high evaluation put upon the election process because of disfranchisement in the South.

<sup>32</sup> On the basis of the Second Ward, it is estimated that 74 per cent of the adult Negro citizens are registered. Applying this ratio to the city, there were about 120,000 registered Negroes in 1930. The Republican primary vote in 1930 was 526,000. Assuming that about 75 per cent of the Negro voters took part in the Republican primary, this would give a figure of about 90,000 primary voters, or about 17 per cent of the total.

## APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF RURAL GOVERNMENT

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### ABSTRACT

The study of rural local government has traditionally been from the legalistic point of view. Since the government of county, township, and village exists primarily for farmers, a better approach would seem to be to examine the economic status and the psychological equipment of the rural population. The problem of rural government will grow in importance since it will involve fitting rural society into a pattern created by urban and industrial forces. Rural government is at present badly adjusted to its tasks. The general property tax has broken down, population is declining while costs remain stationary, tax delinquency is a permanent problem, and a policy for the wise use of land is yet to be formulated. Probable developments in the future are: (1) increasing state control of local functions; (2) the adoption of scientific administration; (3) the widening of the areas of administration in rural sections. Rural attitudes at present do not favor the suggested changes in the direction of permanence, professionalism, and hierarchical organization in governmental services or the adoption of the generally accepted standards of sound administration. An examination of such factors would seem to be more promising than the traditional lines of attack.

One of the leading traditions in the systematic study of local government in this country has been the legalistic one. The problem has commonly been envisaged in terms of units and areas, and these have been most frequently studied from the point of view of their legal position and powers. This is a legitimate point of view and, within limits, a valuable one. What a local government *may* do according to the statutes and the courts is presumptive evidence of what at least *some* governments *are* doing. This is true because a legislative grant of power usually comes as a result of pressure from outside, the general tendency of legislative bodies being to do nothing until forced to act. But is this approach the most fruitful one just now? What are the things that we want to know? Among them are certainly the following: what sort of people live under our typical local governments? what do they do for a living? what is their social background? what sort of culture have they built? what is government doing for them and how well is it doing it? Obviously no one can answer these questions with any finality. But we can at least examine the conditioning factors before we attempt to evaluate the process of government and its output.

It is the contention of this paper that the distinctive thing about such areas as the county, the township, the village, and the school district is that they are operating as *governments for farmers*. Only a small proportion of the more than 3,200 counties in the United States have predominantly urban problems to deal with. The typical county has an area of about six hundred square miles and a population of about twenty thousand. It will contain a city or village of from one to five thousand population and perhaps five or six other hamlets and villages. Probably three-fourths of the population will be engaged in actual farming and the bulk of the remainder will be almost wholly dependent on the fortunes of the tillers of the soil. An analysis of some of the implications of these facts would seem to be a more fruitful starting-point than the session laws or the court reports. In the end the character of government and administration will be determined by the view of life which grows out of the experience of individuals as that view of life translates itself into political decisions at the ballot box and in the more subtle pressures of what we call public opinion. For this reason it would seem elementary for us to examine first of all the economic status and the psychological equipment of the rural population.

It was long the fashion among rural sociologists and those interested in the country life movement to speak of agriculture as a "way of life" rather than a business like other businesses. This description was intended to convey the idea that closeness to the soil gave the farmer an independence not possessed by other groups, rendered him very largely immune from the effects of crises in other spheres, and enabled him to create and maintain a self-contained culture. While this notion may have squared with the facts for a large part of our history, it ceased to be true long before men admitted such to be the case. The end-product of the agrarian revolution of the nineteenth century was to subject agriculture to the price economy under which all business operated.<sup>1</sup> Rural standards of living—and in this are included governmental services—have come to be affected by the price for farm products set by a complicated mechanism seldom subject to producer control. The farm population, divided as it is

<sup>1</sup> See the article by C. C. Taylor, "Country Life Movement," in *Proceedings of the Social Sciences*, IV, 497.

by crop interests and sectional lines, has been progressively incapable of securing for itself its proportionate share in the social income, and the concerns of farmers have been consistently neglected in favor of those of an expanding and self-confident industrialism.

Now it is in fact more than mere campaign oratory to say that the farming population is the "backbone" of the nation. As Beard puts it: "The foundations of national life rest essentially upon agriculture; if the cities were all destroyed tomorrow, they could be renewed again; but if the countryside were ravaged, every city would sink down in ruin. Again and again in the history of the world, great urban centers have arisen and disappeared while civilization has been kept going or has been renewed by the tillers of the soil."<sup>2</sup> The continued drift to the cities should not lead us to believe that it will ever be greatly different, for such facts are founded in the nature of things. The problem of governing the rural population will grow rather than decrease in importance since it will involve nothing less than fitting rural society into a nation-wide pattern which is largely the creation of urban and industrial forces.

The present maladjustment of our traditional rural institutions is most clearly seen in the field of governmental services. The rural population, brought into contact with urban ways of life, has not been slow in demanding the amenities of that life for itself.<sup>3</sup> This sharp elevation in the standard of living has meant a rise in the cost of rural government. Now, historically the principal source of revenue in rural governments has been the general property tax, raised for the most part by levies on real property. There are, of course, very definite limits to the productivity of such a tax and it is the unanimous opinion of those who have studied the matter that it is growing less satisfactory as a tax base in comparison with other forms of property better able to pay the costs of government. The

<sup>2</sup> C. A. Beard, *American Government and Politics* (6th ed.), p. 786.

<sup>3</sup> "Standards are inevitably set by the more dynamic and effective social groups. This has made the urban the pace-making group of the Great Society. . . . Rural education, religion, morals, health, business, work and recreation are all being subjected to the testing of urban standards" (N. L. Sims, *Elements of Rural Sociology*, pp. 23-24). The extension of services to rural areas is discussed by Charles M. Kneier in "The Development of Newer County Functions," *American Political Science Review*, XXIV, 134-40.

states and the nation have had available the more lucrative and flexible fields of revenue such as corporation, franchise, income, and inheritance taxes, but in only a few cases have the proceeds of these been made available to minor units of government. Any distribution of such tax proceeds to rural areas would naturally be accompanied by some state supervision or might even require a redistribution of functions between state and local government and a decrease in local autonomy. To date the rural population has shown no great willingness to experiment in this field. The result has been that the farmer, with a declining income, is attempting to carry a burden of public services supportable only by a confiscatory tax rate.<sup>4</sup>

And there is much to make us believe that the disparity between agricultural resources and the cost of government is a condition likely to persist and is not a temporary result of the severe depression in the shadow of which these words are written. In the first place, it is clear that the population of the agricultural sections of the country is being rapidly depleted. In 1900, 35 per cent of those gainfully employed were engaged in farming; in 1930 probably not over 22 per cent were so engaged; and it is estimated that the annual decrease in the farm population is sufficient to make a city the size of Boston. The burden involved in the support of government is correspondingly heavier for those left behind, and it seems obvious that population loss alone will in the end force widespread changes in the organization of rural government.<sup>5</sup>

In the second place, certain changes in habits of consumption lead to the belief that for a good many years to come agriculture will be in an unsatisfactory position when compared with other types of in-

<sup>4</sup> The statements as to the unsatisfactory character of the general property tax are borne out by every tax survey made for the past twenty years. Of special value are: E. G. Nourse, "Can the American Farm Be Saved?" in *Nation*, CXXXIV, 460-62; "The Agricultural Outlook for 1930," *Department of Agriculture, Misc. Pub. No. 73*, 1930.

<sup>5</sup> See Ernest C. Young, "The Movement of Farm Population: Its Economic Causes and Consequences," in Wilson Gee (ed.), *The Country Life of the Nation* (1930), pp. 54-75; E. G. Nourse, "The Agricultural Outlook," *Journal of Farm Economics*, Vol. IX (January, 1927); O. E. Baker, "The Trend in Agricultural Production," in C. Gini and Others, *Population* (1930); A. E. Taylor, "Population and Agriculture," in Louis I. Dublin (ed.), *Population Problems*; J. Russell Smith, "Agriculture. Some Present Problems," in *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, vol. 1.



dustry. The possibility of developing new uses for farm products is definitely limited by the difficulty of competing with virgin timber, coal, and oil resources. A population in which machine power replaces man power actually needs less food, so that the demand for food is increasing hardly as rapidly as the population, while the lessened demand for meat and the substitution of motor vehicles for horses and mules have added to the crop surplus and at the same time have increased the amount of land which can no longer be profitably cultivated.<sup>6</sup>

Finally, certain developments in the uses of land are of direct and specific significance for the future of local government. Population experts agree that all signs point to the stabilization of our population within the next two generations at a figure not much, if any, in excess of 175,000,000.<sup>7</sup> Since there is no reason to doubt that technological advance in agriculture will continue along with a relatively stationary population, the amount of land needed for agricultural purposes will grow less. As one expert puts it, "We know that, in the present century at least, we shall not need to cultivate quite half our potential arable acreage, and that we can devote more than one-fourth of our total land surface to forests, wild-life refuges, or other uses without encroaching seriously on land required for crops and pasture."<sup>8</sup> That such predictions have a solid basis is demonstrated by the fact that the problem of tax delinquency is already a serious and permanent one in various parts of the country. Large areas of land returning to public ownership because of non-payment of taxes place upon such areas as counties a burden of administration beyond their resources and aggravate the already heavy tax load upon productive land by decreasing the taxable wealth of such units. The formulation of a nation-wide land policy seems imperative. This would require joint action by national, state, and local authorities

<sup>6</sup> L. J. Norton, "Some Recent Changes in Meat and Food Crop Production," *Journal of Farm Economics*, Vol. IX, No. 3 (July, 1927); J. Russell Smith, *op. cit.*

<sup>7</sup> See W. S. Thompson, *Population Problems*; Raymond Pearl, *Studies in Human Biology and The Biology of Population Growth*.

<sup>8</sup> L. C. Gray, "Land Use," *Agricultural Yearbook* (1932), pp. 457-59; O. E. Baker and L. C. Gray, "Land Utilization and the Farm Problem," *Department of Agriculture, Misc. Pub. No. 97*, 1930; Carl Williams, "The Land Use Problem in the South," *Journal of Forestry*, XXX, 280.

and is bound to bring with it when it comes significant and fundamental changes in the pattern of local government.<sup>9</sup>

A few of these probable changes may be briefly indicated. In the first place, the state is likely to assume a greater control over functions hitherto considered local wherever it can be shown that such action is likely to relieve the burden on local real estate. Secondly the pressure of costs upon resources will force in time the adoption of such devices as a permanent administrative staff and the introduction of such improvements as scientific budgeting and accounting control and centralized purchasing—all now conspicuously absent in rural administration. Finally, the political and administrative maps of our states seem likely to undergo striking changes through inter-unit co-operation and in some cases consolidation of areas. The problem of the relation between the state and its local units can no longer be discussed in terms of the ancient categories of political science. If the farmer is to escape from the inequities under which he now suffers, he must stand ready to make such changes in his local arrangements as are necessary to bring about such a result.

The economic readjustments needed to place agriculture in a relatively secure position are of such a nature that they will require an extended period of time for their accomplishment. But they are easy in comparison with those more subtle changes in attitudes and points of view which are fundamental to any reconstruction of local government in rural areas. It is probably a mistake at this date to speak of the existence of a "rural mind."<sup>10</sup> Once we have accepted the fact that American society is on the way to becoming rather completely

<sup>9</sup> See Arthur W. Bromage, "The Crisis in County Government in Michigan," *American Political Science Review*, XXV, 135-45, where it is pointed out that in that state in 1930 one-fourth of the land area was either already owned by the state or on record as delinquent and in process of acquisition by the state. Other interesting material may be found in the article on "Forests" by R. Zon in the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*; in G. B. Clarke and O. B. Jesness, "A Study of Taxation in Minnesota," *Minn. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. No. 277* (August, 1931); and in C. E. Behn, "The Forest Planting Situation in the Northeast," *Journal of Forestry*, XXX (February, 1932), 162-68. Land utilization surveys are now under way in New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, and probably other states.

<sup>10</sup> A criticism and evaluation of the various attempts to analyze the "rural mind" will be found in P. Sorokin and C. C. Zimmerman, *Principles of Rural-Urban Sociology*, chap. xiv. A most sensible discussion of the subject is L. S. Brown, "The Study of Rural Attitudes," in *American Journal of Sociology*, XXII, 630-49.

urbanized, we have in fact admitted that the conditioning factors of rural attitudes have been severely modified; and few can doubt that such distinctive differences as may once have existed between the rural and urban populations will in time completely disappear. Our task, then, is to examine that residuum of traits now remaining after making due allowance for the forces tending toward "rurbanization"—traits which persist because grounded in the nature of the extractive process.

It is in the development and application of standards of administration, we think, that we are likely to observe the strongest influence of the distinctively rural point of view. It is, of course, precisely in this field that we may expect to see greatest progress now that purely political questions have fallen into the background. Is the rural population ready to accept the implications of this fact? Are political scientists and reformers aware of the difficulties which may postpone the realization of their blue-printed schemes? "The character of any administrative system is determined by its environment, that is, by the totality of the social, economic, and political forces and historical traditions which exert an influence on it."<sup>11</sup> If, then, we approach the study of rural administration in a realistic fashion, the question we must answer is, Do the "social, economic, and political forces and historical traditions" in rural society differ from those found in cities to such a degree as to make rural administration in any way distinctive? And an answer to this question may best be attempted when we have before us some of the approved standards of public administration.

The matter of fundamental importance to all administration is that of personnel. An eminent writer on public administration has stated as the three requirements of an adequate civil service, permanence, professionalism, and hierarchy.<sup>12</sup> These three standards mean, briefly, (1) that those employed in the public service should be retained for an indefinite period and removed only for reasons having to do with their efficiency; (2) that the service should be regarded as a career for which men and women may prepare as for any

<sup>11</sup> J. M. Mathews, *American State Government*, p. 258.

<sup>12</sup> A. A. Lefas, *L'État et les fonctionnaires*. Cf. the article on "Bureaucracy" by H. J. Laski in the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*.

other profession; and (3) that the various ranks should be subordinated one to the other in such a way as to place beyond doubt the responsibility for official action in each case.

Now, conditions in rural areas do not favor the building up of a permanent corps of civil servants. The fact must be faced that the merit system has made little progress outside the urban sections of the country and that the agricultural population has shown little interest in, if not actual hostility to, proposals to build up a permanent staff of administrators on any level of government. Most of the states that have adopted the merit system are in the industrial sections of the nation, and those counties in which it has been introduced are without exception highly urbanized.<sup>13</sup> In his own local area the farmer has felt more or less consciously that the retention of the long ballot has increased his control over his local servants. Moreover, the typical farmer or villager can see no reason why "soft jobs" with the county or township should be confined to a few; others should "have a chance" at them. The existence of the "court-house gang" in so many counties bears witness to the fact that this point of view has not preserved rural affairs from boss domination, but, in any event, the introduction of the short ballot and the merit system would involve nothing short of a revolution in rural political mores.

Furthermore, it seems proper to say that there are special circumstances militating against the development of a true professionalism among the employees of rural areas of administration as now constituted. In the first place, the scale of operations is so small as to make unattractive to first-rate talent the work to be done. There are few engineering, health, or welfare problems in the typical small rural area which constitute a challenge to those trained to get results. The present division of the country into thousands of petty areas is a standing invitation to Lilliputian administration. And it leads directly, of course, to the further fact that the number of employees is so small as to afford little or no opportunity for fostering the *esprit du corps* which is so vital to the maintenance of administrative standards. In the second place, administration in the typical rural

<sup>13</sup> The progress of the merit system in counties is thoroughly discussed by J. C. Phillips and C. M. Kneier, *County Government and Administration*, chap. xii.

area is carried on much closer to those affected than is the case in cities, so that officials act under the direct impact of popular ideas and prejudices.<sup>14</sup> In a democratic society officials can nowhere entirely escape this pressure. In cities they are made to feel it through the ward leader and the "boss" who act as conduits to transmit popular views to those responsible for action. In the country, however, the whole relationship is much more personal. Officials are likely to be known to a large proportion of the citizenship, and the public business committed to them is likely to be considered the business of each constituent, whose opinion is bound to be shown at least outward respect. The larger scale upon which administration is conducted in a city of any size makes it necessary to organize the machinery in a hierarchical fashion. The farther this proceeds the more impersonal the process tends to become and the stronger the tendency of the official personnel to escape popular influence, or at least control. And the great diversity of interests met with in cities and the weakness of the neighborhood tie have until the present prevented such an organization of the electorate as will make possible anything like the continuous pressure on administration found in rural districts.

Finally, the spirit and technique of modern scientific administration encounter in the rural regions the highest development of the amateur tradition and the most elaborate worship of the homespun virtue of "common sense." The conditions of life and labor in agricultural communities do not favor the development of specialized skill or respect for exact and painstaking techniques. Nothing in the farmer's or villager's life, at least until the dissemination of city-born ideas, has familiarized him with expert ways of doing things. A jack-of-all-trades himself, living, at least traditionally, a self-sufficient life, he sees little need for special training. If a broken bit of harness will "do" for a hinge on the henhouse door, why will not any "honest" or "practical" men do for public office? Common sense is a virtue highly prized; expertness, in some dimly felt way, connotes uppishness in its possessor.<sup>15</sup> In short, so long as every circumstance

<sup>14</sup> There are some apposite remarks upon the importance of the primary group in rural society in F. H. Allport's *Social Psychology*, p. 384; see also J. E. Boodin, "The Unit of Civilization," in *International Journal of Ethics*, XXX, 142-59.

<sup>15</sup> See the discussion in J. M. Williams, *Our Rural Heritage*, pp. 160-65.

and tradition of country life tend to foster a belief in the adequacy and the validity of what comes close to mere superstition, we may expect rural affairs to be in the hands of incredible witch-doctors. All schemes for reform, all "drives" for efficiency and economy, should take this fact into account.

The realization of the principle of hierarchy would require the organization of the public service to be of such character as to place each function in the hands of a definite individual and to hold him responsible to his superiors for its effective performance. Such an arrangement involves, in reality, both the ideas of permanence and professionalism, as well as a semi-independent status for the administrative branch of the government. It scarcely need be said that it is seldom or never met with in rural government. The typical county is practically never organized in such a way as to show any recognition of a distinction between the political and administrative tasks it has to perform. A large number of officials performing routine tasks are still chosen by popular vote. No single person in the entire organization is legally in a position to give orders to subordinates and enforce compliance with such orders. And, with very few exceptions the functions of rural government have not been departmentalized to such an extent as to place responsibility in definite hands. The management of finances, highways and public works, charities and corrections, and so on—each is parceled out among numerous authorities, all of whom must act together and any one of whom may easily disclaim responsibility when things go wrong. When critics refer to our county organization as being "without head or tail" they are simply using a colloquialism to point to the absence of what we have called hierarchy. Since a hierarchical organization depends in the end upon the achievement of permanence and professionalism in personnel, our failure to attain it is to be explained largely by the same set of rural attitudes toward the public business.

While much depends upon a well-organized and well-trained personnel, this alone cannot insure good administration. Experience has shown that sound methods of transacting business are almost as important. Among the phases of local administration where this fact is most clearly illustrated may be mentioned accounting and budgeting, the purchase of supplies and the awarding of contracts, the allowance of claims, the custody of public funds, and the report-

ing of official actions. These humdrum functions are the vital stuff of administration on every level. Yet partly because they lack dramatic appeal, partly because they do not promise immediate savings in dollars and cents, and partly because inertia is against the newfangled generally, little real progress has been made in introducing improved methods of doing these things in rural areas. Budget and accounting laws, where they exist on paper, seem largely inoperative. This is perhaps not hard to understand. The typical farmer is himself a rather poor business man, keeping his accounts, if at all, "in his head," and judging the profits or loss each year by the crudest methods imaginable. It is little wonder that we hear of authenticated cases where official accounts consist of penciled entries in pocket notebooks or where the "report" of the year's business is little more than an exercise in arithmetic showing a balance or a deficit. Such methods, after all, seem to accord with the custom of the country and should cause no special wonder. In communities long insulated from contact with developments in the larger world of affairs, the traditional way of doing things yields but slowly to argument. The immediate cost of modernization is a telling argument against it, no matter what the possible future economies may appear to be. These latter seem to be so largely matters of opinion; under the traditional régime matters have gone along without positive disaster and this fact re-enforces the argument as to the wisdom of letting well enough alone. Besides, vested interests often grow up about antiquated procedures. Many are supplied with "jobs" who would be displaced by newfangled equipment. Nepotism has long been widespread in rural areas, if the laws against it are any evidence, and in any event the neighborliness of the countryside, celebrated in song and story, is tolerant of ways which "take care" of a perhaps excessive number of public servants.

The penny-pinching notions of economy so wide-spread in rural districts, though they are the despair of those who would move ahead faster than the democratic mass, are not difficult to explain. Farming, even under the old economy, was a risky business, its returns being largely dependent upon forces the behavior of which could not be predicted or controlled by the individual entrepreneur. Saving became the most practical of all moralities. The tax system

in vogue in the country has merely confirmed in the mind of the farmer an attitude toward his property forced on him by the vagaries of nature. The burden of the general property tax is immediate and inescapable. The first duty of officials is to keep down the levy, and the temptation, among conservative and unimaginative people, is to do this by what may in reality be short-sighted methods. It ought also to be remembered that modern administration is extremely expensive. A program of social services combining the demands of zealous reformers would lay a crushing burden upon the typical rural community with its present narrow tax base and the scanty resources of its citizens. Business in rural districts is still conducted on a basis not very far removed from barter. At least the average small farmer is not accustomed to handling large sums in cash. The item of salaries alone involved in a modern program of social welfare and public works, though it seems reasonable to those accustomed to thinking in terms of approved standards, strikes the farmer as extravagantly high. Here, as in other areas, but to an exaggerated degree, a good deal of our mediocre service is traceable to our unwillingness to pay for something more adequate. And it is necessary to remind the reformer that no tinkering with the local machinery of assessment and taxation will unearth the ability to pay for modern administration. The problem of costs can no longer be discussed in terms of local areas; it must be envisaged as one involving an economic system in which lines on the map are of little or no significance and judicial decisions belated and irrelevant footnotes.

Most studies of rural government proceed very definitely from the anatomical school of political scientists or belong to the vast literature of reform. In most cases the structure of government is well enough known to require no further emphasis. Hence those who would deal with the problems of function in the spirit of prophets belong willy-nilly in the ranks of reform. Now the realization of the objectives of reform is strictly conditioned by the factors dealt with in this paper. A dwindling population of farmers cannot, within the terms of the ancient categories, pay for a government conceived of in terms of urban standards of living. It is suggested that such a consummation can be achieved only by considering the status of agriculture in the economy of the nation, with all the ramifications



## URBAN MIGRATION AND EDUCATIONAL SELECTION—ARKANSAS DATA<sup>1</sup>

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### ABSTRACT

According to a recent survey made in Washington County, Arkansas, persons who have migrated to towns during this century averaged one more year of schooling than those who remained on farms. The percentage of migrants increased directly with the amount of education. Boys or girls with only a common-school education were two or three times more likely to become a farmer or a farmer's wife than those with some college training; and a high-school education multiplied the trek from the farm by 20 per cent. In absolute numbers, however, persons having only an eighth-grade education or less made up a majority of the migrating group, in the ratio of three to two. The chief cause of the migration was therefore not higher education, but rather economic factors combined with many others.

A great deal of speculation has centered about the problem of biological selection resulting from migration from farms to urban centers, but all attempts to make convincing measurements of the results of such a process have, in the writer's opinion at least, proved abortive. Another type of selection that from many points of view is no less important than the biological, but whose approximate determination is a relatively simple and objective matter, is the educational. To what extent, if any, do the individuals with more formal education, i.e., education received in school and college, leave the farm and go to reside in villages and cities?

There seems to be no likelihood that investigation will contradict the general opinion that the farm population surrenders its better educated young people to the non-farm population. Yet there is real need for more knowledge of this phenomenon, including its extent and variability, associated factors, recent trends, and actual consequences for rural life.

The present paper gives a brief report of a first attack made on this problem in the state of Arkansas. It summarizes primarily the results of an effort simply to measure the relationship between education and urban migration, but includes also a few secondary relations that occurred as by-products. The data used were collected

<sup>1</sup> *Research Paper No. 308, "Journal Series," University of Arkansas.*

by the personal-interview method, as part of a survey of rural social organization made in the spring of 1932 in Washington County. The area treated lies in the Ozark region, in the trade territory of Fayetteville, a state university town of about eight thousand inhabitants. The population of the county in 1930 was 26 per cent urban, 57 per cent rural-farm, and 17 per cent rural non-farm. The farm group was engaged in fruit growing and general farming. Two-thirds of the farmers owned their farms, averaging 94 acres in size. The rural-farm population was about 99 per cent native white, and only white families were included in the sample. The sample population seemed abnormal only in having a somewhat excessive proportion of individuals in the older age groups (31.3 per cent 45 years of age and over).

Information was obtained from 244 farm families regarding the sex, present age, approximate number of years of schooling, and present place of residence of all adult offspring. In 142 of the families, siblings were living both in towns and on farms. The total number of individual records secured was 842, of which 492 were in the group remaining on farms and 350 were in the group that migrated to towns.

As was to be expected, it was found that persons in the migrant group had received on the average nearly one year of schooling more than those in the farm group, the difference being six times its standard error (Table I). The contrast was more striking when the proportion of individuals of the same educational rating in each of the two groups was calculated. The percentage falling in the urban group became increasingly large as the educational rating rose. Thus, of all individuals with a common-school education or less, only 38 per cent were living in towns; whereas, of the relatively few who had attended college over two years, 80 per cent had left the farm (Table II). In other words, the person whose schooling did not extend beyond the eighth grade remained on the farm twice as often as the person with any college training at all, and three times as often as the person who had advanced in college beyond the Sophomore year.

A comparison within the migrant group did not show any distinction between the sexes in the amount of education received.

When the total sample population was grouped according to age,

there was some evidence that the amount of schooling completed by the average individual had increased by about one year between the approximate dates of 1900 and 1925 (Table I).

TABLE I  
ADULT OFFSPRING OF 244 ARKANSAS FARM FAMILIES, BY AGE,  
EDUCATION, AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE

AGE	LIVING ON FARMS		LIVING IN TOWNS	
	Average Schooling	Individuals	Average Schooling	Individuals
	Years	Number	Years	Number
15-19.....	8.8	55	8.0	10
20-24.....	*8.5	89	9.2	54
25-29.....	7.9	88	†9.8	71
30-39.....	8.2	153	8.8	123
40-49.....	7.9	80	†8.7	58
50-59.....	*6.6	20	8.7	30
Average.....	†8.2	.....	†9.0	.....

\* Difference 2.8 times Standard Error.                      † Difference 2.6 times Standard Error.  
‡ Difference 6.0 times Standard Error. All other differences not significant.

TABLE II  
ADULT OFFSPRING OF 244 ARKANSAS FARM FAMILIES,  
BY EDUCATION AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE  
EXHIBIT I

SCHOOLING (YEARS)	NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS			PERCENTAGE OF INDIVIDUALS		
	On Farms	In Towns	Total	On Farms	In Towns	Total
8 or less.....	350	211	561	62	38	100
9-10.....	73	50	123	59	41	100
11-12.....	54	46	100	54	46	100
13-14.....	10	23	33	30	70	100
15 and over.....	5	20	25	20	80	100
Total.....	492	350	842	.....	.....	.....

In brief, these were the chief findings of this part of the survey. The evidence does not indicate that there is any correlation between the amount of schooling completed and the place of residence, but there might be some correlation between the dates of birth of

the persons included and their tendency to migrate. For example, if the older individuals not only had less schooling than the younger (as was seen above to be the case), but also migrated to town less often, the removal of the better educated members of the sample

TABLE III  
ADULT OFFSPRING OF 244 ARKANSAS FARM FAMILIES,  
BY AGE AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE

AGE	LIVING ON FARMS		LIVING IN TOWNS		PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF STANDARD ERROR
	Individuals		Individuals		
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
15-19.....	55	11	10	3	4.9
20-29.....	177	36	125	36	*
30-39.....	153	31	123	35	*
40-49.....	80	16	58	17	*
50-59.....	20	4	30	9	2.6
60 and over.....	7	1	4	1	*
Total.....	492	100	350	100	.....

\* Difference not significant.

TABLE IV  
ADULT OFFSPRING OF 244 ARKANSAS FARM FAMILIES  
BY EDUCATION AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE  
EXHIBIT 2

SCHOOLING (YEARS)	LIVING ON FARMS		LIVING IN TOWNS	
	Individuals		Individuals	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
8 or less.....	350	71*	211	60*
Above 8.....	142	29	139	40
10 and over.....	105	21	116	33
12 and over.....	62	13	72	21
14 and over.....	9	2	33	9
16 and over.....	3	1	15	4
Total.....	492	.....	.....	.....

\* All differences over 3 times Standard Error.

population to towns might be partly due to the accident of age and the trend of the times, rather than to differences in education. To test the importance of this possibility, it was necessary to compare the percentages of persons of older and younger ages occurring in the farm and migrant groups, respectively. As a result of this comparison, it appeared that there was a tendency for the migrant group to contain more instead of less than its share of older persons (Table III). The amount of educational selection associated with urban migration in the sample population was therefore somewhat understated rather than overstated by the findings of the survey.

Finally, it should be emphasized that in absolute numbers persons with only an eighth-grade education or less made up a majority of these migrants to towns, the ratio being three such persons to two having any secondary or college education (Table IV). This leaves no room for a belief that higher education was the chief cause of the urban migration.

## CAN STANDARDS OF LIVING BE RATED FROM OBSERVATION?

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### ABSTRACT

In order to obtain what might be a usable scheme for determining the actual prevailing standards of living for farm families, a study was made of 900 farm families in Wisconsin. Information was obtained on the receipts from all sources and the expenditures for all purposes for one year by each family, and families were rated in five classes, from A to E, on the basis of general impressions on the appearance of the farmstead, interior of the house, and personality of the homemaker. Although average total cost of living declines quite regularly from the A to the E group, the decline is not distributed regularly among the different kinds of goods and services. The average cost of food decreases only slightly and very irregularly; clothing drops markedly and regularly to the D rating only; house rent and expenditures for "all other" purposes fall markedly and regularly; average cost of purchased goods and services declines more pronouncedly than cost of the furnished.

Casual reference to standards of living by intercessors for the farmer causes the social scientist to wonder how these intercessors measure or appraise the standard of living. Most of them when questioned make no claim for having attempted to measure it in terms of either expenditures or goods and services used. "Judging from observation," they say when questioned, "the standard seems to be at about that level."

Thus, we are brought to face the question, "Can the farmer's standard of living be appraised or rated from observation?" If so, what might be a usable scheme for determining the actual prevailing standard for a given family or group of families?

One phase of a recent study among 900 farm families in Wisconsin throws some light on these questions.<sup>1</sup> The families were situated in seven localities representing the major type of farming areas of the state. They were visited by two field workers at about the same time for information on the receipts from all sources and the expenditures for all purposes, for one year, by each family. The worker who visited the homemaker for information on the amounts and costs of goods and services used for family living purposes rated the homes in

<sup>1</sup> See *Farm Family Living in Wisconsin*, University of Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 1114. Ratings from observation are not discussed in the bulletin.

five classes, according to her best judgment. The classes ranged from A down to E, representing excellent, good, average, fair, or poor conditions. The ratings were the results of general impressions on the appearance of the farmstead, the interior of the house, and in most instances the personality of the homemaker.

In all, 781 homes were rated.<sup>2</sup> The numbers placed in the five classes are indicated in Table I. In terms of proportion of the total number, 27 per cent of the homes were rated excellent, 33 per cent good, 26 per cent average, 11 per cent fair, and 3 per cent poor. These proportions were the result of spontaneous procedure, that is, the different workers, of which there were six, were not instructed or urged to put any specific number or proportion of homes in any given class.

Figures by means of which the observation ratings may be compared with prevailing standards of living are given in Table I. They include total cost of living, expenditures for the principal groups of goods and services, and for living furnished by the farm and purchased on the per family basis. They include also the percentage distribution of the total expenditures per family among the principal groups of goods and services, and between the living furnished by the farm and purchased.

It is noteworthy that the average total cost of living declines quite regularly from \$1,754 (per family) for the A group to \$1,091 for the E group of families. The decline is not distributed regularly among the different kinds of goods and services, however. The average cost of food decreases only slightly and very irregularly. The cost of clothing drops markedly and regularly to the D rating, only. House rent and the expenditures for "all other" purposes fall markedly and regularly. The expenditures for advancement fall noticeably but very irregularly. The average cost of purchased goods and services declines more pronouncedly than cost of the furnished.

With respect to percentage distribution of the total cost of living

<sup>2</sup> No attempt was made to rate the 119 homes in the first unit of the study. The locality for this unit was very similar to that for each of two other units, so that the results probably are not widely different from what they would have been with these homes included in the 900.

among the principal groups of goods and services, the proportion of the total for food shows a pronounced increase, from 31 per cent to

TABLE I

THE STANDARD OF LIVING, IN TERMS OF TOTAL COST AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE COST AMONG THE PRINCIPAL KINDS OF GOODS AND SERVICES, IN RELATION TO RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION: 781 FARM FAMILIES OF SELECTED LOCALITIES IN WISCONSIN, 1929-30

RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION	FAMILIES	COST OF LIVING PER FAMILY							
		Total*	Average Expenditure for					Furn- ished by Farm*	Pur- chased*
			Food	Cloth- ing	Rent†	Ad- vance- ment	All Other		
	Number	Dollars							
All groups.....	781	1439	508	194	218	81	438	489	950
Excellent (A).....	214	1754	543	244	298	122	547	580	1174
Good (B).....	256	1395	497	186	211	73	428	481	914
Average (C).....	205	1312	499	174	185	71	383	477	865
Fair (D).....	82	1173	472	149	152	39	361	411	762
Poor (E).....	24	1091	522	157	96	32	284	396	695
	Per Cent of Total	Per Cent of Total Expenditure							
All groups.....	100	100	35.3	13.5	15.1	5.6	30.4	34.0	66.0
Excellent (A).....	27	100	31.0	13.8	17.0	7.0	31.2	33.1	66.9
Good (B).....	33	100	35.6	13.3	15.1	5.3	30.7	34.5	65.5
Average (C).....	26	100	38.0	13.3	14.1	5.4	29.2	34.1	65.9
Fair (D).....	11	100	40.2	12.7	13.0	3.3	30.8	35.0	65.0
Poor (E).....	3	100	47.9	14.4	8.8	2.9	26.0	36.3	63.7

\* Cost covers the "value" attributed to the goods furnished by the farm and the expenditures for goods and services purchased for home use during the year of study. Cost was arrived at as follows: prices given by the homemakers were checked with those given by the farm operators for foods and fuel furnished by the farm and with current prices in the stores where the families did most of their trading for the goods which were purchased. Furnished foods and fuel were priced at what they would have brought had they been sold at the local market.

† Rent refers to use of the farmhouse for family living purposes for the year of study. It represents 10 per cent of the value of the house in each instance. Values for the study corresponded to those reported by the interviewees to the 1930 census enumerators. These in turn appeared to be in fairly close accord with the values reported to local assessors. Since the housing values do not include building lots, the rental figures obtained from them would not be comparable with urban house rent figures without this additional allowance. Practically the same method was followed in arriving at the rental figures used in Tables II and III, except preferences to 1930 census evaluations.



almost 48 per cent. The proportion for clothing remains practically steady. The proportion for "all other" purposes shows a slight tendency to decline; and the proportions for rent and advancement show marked decreases, from 17 per cent to less than 9 per cent, and from 7 per cent to less than 3 per cent.

The proportion of the total living furnished by the farm shows only a slight tendency to rise, from 33.1 to 36.3 per cent. Thus the proportion of the total purchased declines from 66.9 to 63.7 per cent.

These results are in accord with the findings from two other studies, one of which dealt with almost 300 farm families of south-eastern Ohio.<sup>3</sup> These families were visited in 1927 for information, also, on all farm and family living receipts and expenditures. The numbers and percentages of the total number of families rated A, B, C, D, and E for this study are indicated in Table II. Considerably fewer of these families were rated A, only 8 per cent, compared to 27 per cent of the Wisconsin families.

The Ohio families had lower prevailing standards of living generally than did the Wisconsin families. They consumed \$931 worth of goods and services annually compared to \$1,439 worth consumed by the Wisconsin families. They devoted a much larger percentage of the total expenditures to food, a considerably lower percentage to rent, and a somewhat lower percentage to "all other" goods and services. A larger proportion of their living was furnished by the farm.

As with the Wisconsin families, the total cost of living declines regularly from the A to the E rating. The decline is distributed in somewhat the same way, except that it appears to be more marked for all the principal kinds of goods except food.

Trends in the percentage distribution of expenditures are more pronounced. The proportion of the total for food increased from 41.7 per cent for A families to 62.7 per cent for C families. The proportions for the other principal kinds of goods and services declined, those for rent and advancement regularly and markedly.

The other study of which the results are similar includes 2,010

<sup>3</sup> See "Sources and Uses of Income Among 300 Families of Vinton, Jackson, and Meigs Counties, Ohio, 1926," United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Preliminary Report, 1928. Ratings from observations are not discussed in the report.

farm families of selected localities in eleven states, 1922-24.<sup>4</sup> In terms of the percentages of the total number, these families were rated about the same as the 300 Ohio families.

TABLE II

THE STANDARD OF LIVING, IN TERMS OF TOTAL COST AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE COST AMONG THE PRINCIPAL KINDS OF GOODS AND SERVICES, IN RELATION TO RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION: 298 FARM FAMILIES OF SOUTHEASTERN OHIO, 1927

RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION	FAMILIES	COST OF LIVING PER FAMILY							
		Total	Average Expenditure for					Furn- ished by Farm	Pur- chased
			Food	Cloth- ing	Rent	Ad- vance- ment	All Other		
	Num- - ber	Dollars							
All Groups.....	298	931	457	156	67	45	206	401	530
Excellent (A).....	25	1202	502	224	119	76	281	479	723
Good (B).....	95	1015	458	167	84	62	244	418	597
Average (C).....	125	890	452	151	59	39	189	395	495
Fair (D).....	41	755	440	120	34	15	146	345	410
Poor (E).....	12	739	403	104	28	11	133	355	384
	Per Cent of Total	Per Cent of Total Expenditure							
All Groups.....	100	100	49.1	16.8	7.2	4.8	22.1	43.0	57.0
Excellent (A).....	8	100	41.7	18.6	9.9	6.4	23.4	39.9	60.1
Good (B).....	32	100	45.1	16.4	8.3	6.2	24.0	41.2	58.8
Average (C).....	42	100	50.8	17.0	6.6	4.4	21.2	44.4	55.6
Fair (D).....	14	100	58.3	15.9	4.5	2.0	19.3	45.7	54.3
Poor (E).....	4	100	62.7	14.1	3.7	1.5	18.0	48.1	51.9

The prevailing standard of living for the 2,010 families was slightly higher than for the Wisconsin families; \$1,589 worth of goods and

<sup>4</sup> See E. L. Kirkpatrick, "Observation as a Measure of the Standard of Living among Farmers," *Journal of Home Economics*, XIX, No. 8, 459.

services were used annually (Table III). The average total cost of living declined from \$2,278 for the A group to \$1,018 for the E group of these families. This decline was distributed regularly through all

TABLE III

THE STANDARD OF LIVING, IN TERMS OF TOTAL COST AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE COST, AMONG THE PRINCIPAL KINDS OF GOODS AND SERVICES, IN RELATION TO RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION: 2,010 FARM FAMILIES OF SELECTED LOCALITIES IN ELEVEN STATES, 1922-24

RATINGS BY FIELD WORKERS FROM OBSERVATION	FAMI- LIES	COST OF LIVING PER FAMILY							
		Total	Average Expenditure for					Furn- ished by Farm	Pur- chased
			Food	Cloth- ing	Rent	Ad- vance- ment	All Other		
	Num- ber	Dollars							
All Groups . . . . .	2010	1589	661	237	194	106	391	691	897
Excellent (A) . . . . .	211	2278	720	319	353	232	654	875	1403
Good (B) . . . . .	615	1817	687	274	240	153	403	745	1072
Average (C) . . . . .	715	1457	650	221	172	76	338	667	790
Fair (D) . . . . .	359	1234	627	181	105	44	277	584	650
Poor (E) . . . . .	110	1018	592	144	62	18	202	554	464
	Per Cent of Total	Per Cent of Total Expenditure							
All Groups . . . . .	100	100	41.6	14.9	12.2	6.7	24.6	43.5	56.5
Excellent (A) . . . . .	10	100	31.6	14.0	15.5	10.2	28.7	38.4	61.6
Good (B) . . . . .	31	100	37.8	15.1	13.2	8.4	25.5	41.0	59.0
Average (C) . . . . .	36	100	44.6	15.2	11.8	5.2	23.2	45.8	54.2
Fair (D) . . . . .	18	100	50.8	14.7	8.5	3.6	22.4	47.3	52.7
Poor (E) . . . . .	5	100	58.2	14.1	6.1	1.8	19.8	54.4	45.6

the principal elements of the living. It is least pronounced for food and most pronounced for advancement.

Percentage distribution of the total cost among the different kinds of goods and services is indicative. The distribution for food and services is regularly; that for clothing remains practically constant, those for

the other kinds decrease; for rent and advancement they decrease markedly.

These families show wider ranges in the percentages of the total cost of living furnished by the farm and purchased than are indicated for the other two groups. This difference cannot be accounted for satisfactorily on the basis of the proportions of the total furnished by the farm and purchased, since these were practically the same as for the 300 Ohio families. Nor can it be accounted for on the basis of the total cost of goods and services purchased since this is not widely different from the corresponding figure for the Wisconsin families. Perhaps some of it might be accounted for in size of family or household were figures for this factor available. Unfortunately they are available for only the 2,010 families. The average size of family was 3.9, 4.2, 4.4, 4.9, and 5.5 persons for the A, B, C, D, and E groups of these families, respectively.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE FINDINGS

On the basis that costs are indicative of prevailing standards of living, rating by observation suggests a possible method of ascertaining something of the comparative welfare of farm families. In normal times, even, it offers a means of learning tentatively the number of families in a given area that are below, at, or near the minimum standard of living. In times like the present it represents a possible way of discovering those families that are in need of and perhaps entitled to relief. On the whole it suggests a usable plan of mapping a state or a given region in standard-of-living areas, somewhat as gross returns from farming are used as bases for type-of-farming areas.

The appearance of the farmstead, including the exterior of the house, might be made to suffice as a basis for the ratings. In two of the studies referred to above, workers rated each home on three bases: (1) appearance of the farmstead, (2) appearance of the interior of the house, and (3) general reaction to all impressions from the visit. Ratings on the farmstead, primarily the exterior of the house, were practically as indicative as on either of the other two bases. In other words, there were close correlations among the ratings from the three angles or bases.

Appearance of the farmhouse, then, may be a fairly satisfactory index of the prevailing standard of living. At any rate it is worthy of further consideration as to its significance with respect to the matter.

The method here described is very inadequate, of course, even as a rough gauge. It needs to be further developed, and even then it will have limitations for strictly scientific purposes. It cannot be made to take account of amounts and qualities of goods and services used, or of the capacity of different members of the family to obtain satisfactions from the uses of goods and services. This latter limitation is little if any more serious, however, than our inability at present to measure satisfactions by the statistical method.

Although not conclusive in any respect the results here presented are suggestive of further actual attempts to appraise the standard of living more quickly than it has been found possible to appraise it by statistical analyses. They indicate a need for additional study in search of a satisfactory and easily applicable method of measuring standards of living of farm families comparatively.

## VOCATIONAL INTERESTS OF EMINENT WOMEN OF TODAY

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### ABSTRACT

An analysis and comparison of the records of eminent women listed in *Who's Who in America* for 1929, 1930, and 1902 indicate that: (1) the proportion of women gaining eminence is shifting from art, music, literature, and the stage to work that is more dependent on formal training; (2) there is a marked tendency for women to gain public acknowledgment for work in fields of activity in which hitherto they have not been prominent, notably in politics and business; (3) in several cases there was no correlation between the proportion of women who gained success in certain vocations and the proportion of women gainfully employed in such fields. The proportion of women listed as journalists or editors decreased, despite the fact that the proportion of women gainfully employed in this field increased. The proportion of lawyers listed changed very little although the proportion gainfully employed decreased. Change in social attitude regarding women's ability and social status is shown by the increasing employment and vocational success of women.

Women are taking advantage of the economic, political, and social freedom gained during the past fifty years as is evidenced by the fact that women are represented in a majority of the vocations listed in the United States Bureau of the Census for 1930. While this fact is generally understood little is known as to (1) whether it is easier or more difficult for women to gain public recognition of their work today than it was a few decades ago, (2) to what extent the proportion of women gaining recognition has shifted in the various fields of activity during the past thirty years, and (3) in which of the vocations women find the least difficulty in rising to prominence.

In an effort to throw light on these questions, the most practicable procedure was to compile statistical data pertaining to women who have become prominent in recent years because of some outstanding accomplishment and who are generally regarded as being successful. It must be recognized at the beginning that there are different views concerning what constitutes success, but in approaching the present problem public recognition for outstanding work has been accepted as a practicable criterion of success.

Records of accomplishments of individuals are to be found in encyclopedias, other reference books, and newspapers. Of these it

appeared that *Who's Who in America* contained the most condensed and pertinent information needed for the problem at hand. Accordingly, relevant data were selected from the 1929 and 1930 editions, tabulated, and analyzed; and, whenever possible, comparisons were made with previous studies of similar nature with a view of discovering social trends.

The 1930 edition of *Who's Who in America* contained the names of 1,885 women living at the time the book was published. Since there was a total of 48,773,140 females ten years of age or older living in the United States in 1930, it may be shown that only one in every 25,875 of these females were listed in this publication. According to a previous survey,<sup>1</sup> there were 977 eminent women listed in the 1902 edition of *Who's Who in America* and, since there were 28,246,384 females ten years of age or older in our country in 1900, we can estimate that about one in every 28,911 gained sufficient public recognition to be listed. The obvious conclusion is that the proportion of women gaining eminence in 1930 is greater than it was in 1902. While the increase is not great it is sufficient to show definitely that it is gradually becoming easier for women to gain recognition for their work than it was twenty-eight years ago.

An analysis of the vocational classification of the 1,718 eminent women listed in the 1929 *Who's Who* showed that almost 90 per cent of the women mentioned gained recognition as professional workers, while 8.5 per cent gained the attention of the public either because of their social or philanthropic activities, and 1.45 per cent gained eminence as politicians. A very small percentage, or less than ten in number, became successful in business. The method of classifying was difficult as many of the women were interested in more than one kind of activity; however, they were classified according to what seemed to be the major interest of the individual. For example, a woman who was mentioned as an educator, lecturer, and author was classified as an educator when it appeared that the major portion of her activities were in the field of education.

After arranging the vocational groups according to the percentage which each group was of the total number (1,718 women), it was

<sup>1</sup> Amanda Carolyn Northrop, "Successful Women of America," *Popular Science Monthly*, LXIV (1903 4), 237.

found that the authors, including 527 and representing 30.7 per cent of the entire group, headed the list; educators ranked second with 370 and representing 21.5 per cent of the total number; artists, constituting about 9 per cent, took third place; actresses, journalists, musicians, and social workers followed, each group containing from 5 per cent to 9 per cent of the whole number. The remaining groups each contained 3 per cent or less.

It was found that the artists, actresses, authors, and musicians made up 52.1 per cent of the total number of eminent women listed in the 1929 publication. In other words, a little over one half of the women gained success in fields of work that are of an artistic and emotional nature.

When data of this study were compared with those of a similar survey made of women listed in the 1902 edition of *Who's Who in America*, the following trends were noted: (1) the proportion of women gaining eminence has shifted considerably in the various vocational groups during the past twenty-eight years; (2) there was a marked tendency for women to gain public acknowledgment for work in fields of activity in which hitherto they have not been prominent; and (3) in several cases there was no correlation between the proportion of women who gained success in certain vocations and the proportion of women gainfully employed in such fields.

According to data obtained from the survey of women listed in the 1902 edition of *Who's Who*, about 72 per cent of the women gained prominence as artists, actresses, musicians, and writers as contrasted to 52.1 per cent in the present study. The decrease in this percentage is undoubtedly the result of a smaller proportion of women pursuing these vocations. Data obtained from the Bureau of Census show that 0.26 per cent of the females ten years of age or older gainfully employed were listed as actresses, artists, musicians, and authors in 1930, while 0.32 per cent were thus listed in 1910.

In the 1902 study of eminent women, 9.5 per cent of them gained eminence in the field of education as compared with 21.5 per cent of the women included in the present survey. The proportion of those gaining recognition in the field of education by *Who's Who in America* has significance notwithstanding the fact that educators of certain



rank are arbitrarily included, since it indicates marked progress in achieving success in education as a vocation. The great increase in the educational field is not surprising since data based on the United States Bureau of Census indicate a very steady and rapid increase in the proportion of women entering educational work. For instance, in 1900 there were 463 women listed by the Census as college presidents and professors,<sup>2</sup> and in the 1930 issue 20,131 were thus listed; in 1900 there were 296,474 women classified as teachers,<sup>3</sup> but by 1928 the number had grown to 693,741,<sup>4</sup> showing an increase of 134 per cent.

The percentage of women gaining recognition as librarians by *Who's Who* has increased during the past few decades, being 0.94 per cent for the women listed in the 1902 edition and 2.85 per cent for those mentioned in the 1929 issue. It should be borne in mind that librarians attaining certain rank are automatically listed by this publication. In 1910, the Census shows that 5,829 women were registered as librarians, while in 1930 the number increased to 27,056.

Women who are interested in journalism will regret to learn that the proportion of women listed as journalists or editors decreased, despite the fact that the proportion of women gainfully employed in this field increased during the period between 1900 and 1930. According to a previous study, 6.8 per cent of the women listed in the 1902 edition of *Who's Who* were grouped as journalists, while only 4.7 per cent are thus classified in 1929. In 1900, 2,193 women were registered as journalists or editors by the Bureau of Census, and in 1930 the number thus listed totaled 11,924. When considering the total number of females ten years of age or older who were gainfully employed in 1900 and in 1930 the increase in proportion of journalists is about 3.2 per cent. These facts would lead one to believe that it is becoming more difficult for women to gain success as journalists or editors.

There was a slight increase in the proportion of women gaining eminence as social workers and philanthropists between the years 1902 and 1929 as likewise there was for the rank and file of women gainfully employed or interested in social work and philanthropy.

<sup>2</sup> Joseph A. Hill, *Women in Gainful Occupations, 1870-1920*, p. 42.

<sup>3</sup> *Op. cit.*

<sup>4</sup> *Statistical Abstract of United States, 1931*, p. 109.

Among the women who are recognized by *Who's Who*, the proportion of lawyers changed very little during the past twenty-eight years, although the proportion of women ten years old or older and listed by the 1930 Census as gainfully employed as lawyers is considerably less than it was for 1910. This may be interpreted as meaning that women lawyers are finding it easier to receive public acknowledgment for their work. The percentage of successful women in chemistry and work based upon it changed from 1.8 per cent in 1902 to 3 per cent in 1929. Since there is a difference in classifications no comparison can be made with the proportion of women listed by the Census as being gainfully employed in this line of work.

In the 1902 study of women of *Who's Who in America*, 2.13 per cent of the women were classified as physicians or surgeons, while in the 1929 survey the proportion was 1.92 per cent. The decrease in the proportion of women interested in medicine is likewise reflected in the proportion of women who entered this profession since 1920. In 1920, data taken from the Census show that 7,219 women, or 3.8 per cent of the total number of females ten years of age or older gainfully employed, were listed as physicians or surgeons, while in 1930 only 6,825 or 2.9 per cent were thus classed. Undoubtedly the long and expensive training necessary for success in this profession has been a factor in discouraging women from entering the work even though it has extensive possibilities for women. Another factor is the prejudice which people have regarding the ability of women physicians.

The findings of this presentation substantiate the general opinion that women are gaining success in what are considered new lines of work. For example, no woman was classified in the 1902 study of the women of *Who's Who* as a "politician," and only one was listed as being a business woman, whereas, in the 1929 study twenty-five women were classed as politicians and eight as business women. The 1929 edition of *Who's Who* contained the names of many women who were or have been state governors, members of congress, officials of city governments, or who are acting in other political capacities.

As further evidence that women are being successful in new ac-

tivities, 23 women gained public acknowledgment for work which did not come under any of the main occupational or professional vocations in the present study, while only three were classed under "miscellaneous" vocations in the survey of the 1902 eminent women. One of the three was a deposed queen, another a seed grower, and the third a life-saver.

The miscellaneous vocational group for the 1929 study contains the names of five explorers, three engineers, several nurses, a pharmacist, a phrenologist, a tennis player, and a few others. The variety of interests represented by the women of this group impresses one with the fact that women are slowly but surely entering new vocations. The fact, too, that these women have been given public recognition indicates that people are acknowledging women's accomplishments in work other than that of an artistic or humanitarian nature as was the custom prior to the twentieth century.

The shifting from one occupational or professional field to another may be attributed in part to choice and part to individual qualifications such as education, experience, or natural ability, and to a demand or opportunity for employment. Dr. Hill observes that the occupational classification of women may change materially in a very short time and explains that such changes may be temporary, citing conditions during the World War.<sup>5</sup> On the other hand, Dr. Hill believes that such changes may indicate a permanent tendency or an adjustment to conditions that are likely to continue.

Prior to the twentieth century it was considered proper for women to cook, sew, enjoy a garden, and to indulge in the fine arts. Today women are gainfully employed in 527 different occupations according to the survey made by Miss Breckinridge for the President's Report; however, 85 per cent of the women were concentrated in only 24 of these occupations. In 1900, 21 per cent of all women over 16 years of age were gainfully employed, but this percentage increased to 25 per cent in 1930. Miss Breckinridge believes it is very apparent that women are assuming a greater share of the responsibility for carrying on the work of the country. Economic pressure and popular demand for co-education have broken down the Victorian ideals, and today women feel free to enter practically any

<sup>5</sup> Joseph A. Hill, *Women in Gainful Occupations, 1870-1920*, p. 45.

vocation or avocation they choose. It may be added, too, that leisure which women now enjoy and which the majority of them in the past did not has been a vital factor in the shifting of women's vocations and interests.

As a result of the great demand for education among women, state colleges and universities and likewise many private ones which were closed to them less than fifty years ago have opened their doors and are offering women advantages which were never theirs in the past. The increase in the number of women entering institutions of

TABLE I

ESTIMATED PROPORTION OF WOMEN TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OLDER GAINFULLY EMPLOYED IN SIX SELECTED VOCATIONS SELECTED FOR THE 1929 EDITION OF *Who's Who in America* ON THE BASIS OF THE 1930 UNITED STATES CENSUS

Vocational Groups	Number of Females Ten Years Old or Older Gainfully Employed (1930 United States Census)	Number of Women Listed in 1929 <i>Who's Who in America</i>	Estimated Per Cent of Gainfully Employed Selected for <i>Who's Who</i> , 1930
Authors.....	5,447	527	9.67
Actresses.....	19,290	99	0.51
Artists.....	22,023	151	0.68
Musicians.....	79,611	116	0.14
Physicians.....	6,825	33	0.48
Librarians.....	27,056	49	0.18

higher learning has been phenomenal. In 1910, for example, there were 104,701 women enrolled in state colleges and professional schools, but by 1928 the number increased to 356,137; in 1910, records show that 602 graduate degrees were earned by women, while in 1928 the number grew to 4,858.<sup>6</sup>

The percentages which appear in Table I indicate social tendencies that will be of interest to women looking forward to a career and public acknowledgment for their work. Although there is a difference of about one year in the two sets of figures in this tabulation, the percentages may be used in making a few general comparisons. For example, they indicate that it is far easier for authors to

<sup>6</sup> *Biennial Survey of Education*, Department of Interior, Office of Education, Bull. No. 16, 1930, p. 698.

be recognized by *Who's Who in America* than it is for artists, actresses, musicians, physicians, or librarians. An estimation based upon data given in Table I shows that little less than 10 per cent of the women listed in the 1930 Census as being gainfully employed as authors will be acknowledged by *Who's Who*, while less than 1 per cent of the women pursuing any one of the other five professions thus listed will be acknowledged. These data would make it appear as though the musicians of our country have a smaller proportion of their number listed in *Who's Who* than do any of the others included in this particular group; the librarians rank second in this respect.

In general, the compilations made for this study show that the proportion of women gaining public recognition for their work is shifting from art, music, literature, and the stage to work that is more dependent upon formal training. The results are encouraging as they indicate that women may gain success in practically any work in which they demonstrate their value and that it is easier for women today to gain recognition for their services than it was only a few decades ago. In short, the social attitude regarding women's ability and social status has changed and is changing under the influences of the twentieth century.

# CURRENT RESEARCH PROJECTS

## THE 1933 CENSUS OF CURRENT RESEARCH PROJECTS: REPORT RECEIVED TO MAY 15, 1933

The returns from the American Sociological Society 1933 census of current research projects as classified and edited by Harold Hosea and George A. Lundberg of the Committee on Social Research, appear below. An attempt has been made to give the subject, scope, author, and his address whenever this information has been available. In arranging the material the categories employed in *Social Science Abstracts* have been used. In the cross-references the serial numbers of the projects are given. The authors' names are arranged alphabetically within the several groups.

[EDITOR'S NOTE.—Projects included in the census published in Vol. XXXVIII, No. 5 (March, 1933), are indicated in this list by a citation of the page and serial number of the project. The description is reprinted only where a reformulation has been made.]

### SOCIAL THEORY AND ITS HISTORY

(See also 124, 134, 169, 171, 177)

1. **Social philosophy of Robert Hamilton Bishop.** Read Bain, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
2. **History of the concept of instinct.** L. L. Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. A study of the usage of instinct by social philosophic writers from the times of the earliest printed materials to the present.
3. **History of social theory in the United States.** *Idem.* This study covers both sociology and the related social sciences.
4. **Sociology and international relations.** L. L. Bernard and J. S. Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. A study of the research done by sociologists in the field of the sociology of international relations, including such topics as war, peace, international justice, international organization and control, immigration and emigration and migration, Americanization, etc.; the opinions expressed regarding these subjects by American sociologists in their writings; and a discussion of the theories of international relations as presented by American sociologists.
5. **Stratification and mobility in primitive society.** Brewton Berry, University of Missouri, Columbia.
6. **The social science of the 18th century.** Gladys Bryson, Smith College, Northampton, Mass. (See XXXVIII, 728, No. 5.)
7. **A post-war bibliography of the Near Eastern Mandates.** Stuart C. Dodd, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Syria. (See XXXVIII, 728, No. 7.)
8. **Achievements of the social sciences.** S. C. Gilfillan, 5623 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago. From the inception of their influence, in the United States.
9. **Trends of the social sciences, as reflected in the American post-graduate theses in economic, social, and political science.** *Idem* or H. W. Odum. From the beginning of graduate study in the '70's, to 1931. Four-fifths of the doctoral and an equal number of master's theses were read by title, and classified among thirty fields, and by university, year, degree, and department granting degree.

10. Sociological interpretation of the writings of Amos. Paul McBride Gillis, 316 Welsh Avenue, Wilmerding, Pennsylvania.
11. Bibliographical outline and digest of historical and general sociology. Joseph Mayer, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.
12. Scientific economic thought. *Idem*. The area and period covered are mainly the French, English, Austrian, and American phases of economic thought from the period of the physiocrats to the present day.
13. The social and economic conditions obtaining in Upper Silesia, viewed in their historical perspective; especially in the area ceded to Poland after the plebiscite of 1922. William J. Rose, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire.
14. Lester F. Ward and Edward A. Ross: An interchange of letters. Bernard J. Stern, Columbia University, New York City.
15. The letters of Albion W. Small to Lester F. Ward. *Idem*.

### HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY

(See also 245, 247)

16. Effects of colloid coagulants and dispersants upon human behavior. Gilbert J. Rich, 907 South Lincoln Street, Chicago. Administration of chemicals which have definite effects upon colloid chemistry of the brain to psychotic subjects, children exhibiting behavior problems, and normal individuals.

### Child Study and Adolescence

(See also 221)

17. The Gestalt of the delinquent child. Clairette P. Armstrong, Psychologist Children's Court, 127 East 22d Street, New York City. A prefatory note emphasizing that the delinquent child is part and parcel of his total situation and cannot be isolated as a personality from his total situation.
18. The self-words of a child—an attempt to check the results of Cooley's study of same title. Read Bain, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. First twenty-seven months' language development of a female. Observation of two persons—noting day-by-day development.
19. An observational study of a group of adolescent boys in an auto mechanics class. Bertha T. Hirshstein, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut. Observational records covering a six months' period for a class of twenty boys.
20. A study of the relation between developmental age and social factors. Jerome R. Merwick, St. Benedict's College, Atchison, Kansas. Boys eleven, twelve, and thirteen years of age in five of the geographical sections of the country; comparing the scores of the Furfey D. A test in rich and poor, negro and white, rural and urban, institutional and non-institutional, boys in different sections of the United States.

### Personality and Life Organization

21. The relationship of experience and habit to genius and special talents. Robert E. L. Faris, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island. Data consist largely of intimate life-history documents collected by the author and some published autobiographical material.
22. The classification of symbolic movements. Maurice H. Krout, 4316 Lexington Street, Chicago. The material used here consists of about 125 records of three types of verbal association to a list of 160 gestures employed as stimulus words. Some material of value has also been culled from other experiments.
23. Clinical techniques based on symbolic movements. *Idem*. The material employed is culled from the study of one subject and five controls observed under the same conditions and given exactly similar tests. The tests were carried on over a period of some weeks at the college where the author is teaching.

24. **Experimental studies in symbolic movement.** *Idem.* For some experiments twelve, for some sixteen, and for some twenty subjects studied intensively. They were all observed under ordinary classroom conditions, at which time gestures and stimulus words were recorded. Later the stimulus words were used to evoke gestures, under controlled conditions. Various records have been obtained.

25. **Symbolic movements in relation to personality and culture.** *Idem.* The material for this study consists in literature available on expressive movements of animals, embryos (animal and human), feral men (Wild Boy of Aveyron), primitives, and civilized people. Added to this are the author's observations of symbolic movements in certain cases studied.

#### THE FAMILY

(See also 96, 97, 99, 108, 256, 267)

26. **An investigation into the processes of family formation.** Robert G. Foster, 71 East Ferry Avenue, Detroit, Michigan. The study is confined to newly married couples (100 cases in all) over a period of the first three years of their married life. Data are obtained through interviews with each couple prior to marriage, interviews and questionnaire reports during the period of the study, covering sexual, economic, social, religious, and emotional (personality) factors. The purpose is to determine, by intensive case method, how family pattern or structure develops and the ways in which conflicts and adjustments take place.

27. **The Negro family in the United States.** E. Franklin Frazier, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee. This study attempts to trace the development of the Negro family in the United States with special emphasis on the building up of family traditions and as it has been affected by the differentiation of the Negro population as the result of urbanization. The data include: original census material on families in three Southern cities and three rural counties; family history documents; printed materials and statistics and case studies from social agencies.

28. **The suburban family and leisure.** Mary Alice McInerny, 230 County Office Building, White Plains, New York. Time diaries of husbands, wives, and children revealing distribution of leisure between the home and outside the home, and the extent to which the family is a unit in leisure activities.

29. **Application of the theory of limits to evolutionary and other hypotheses of change in family structure.** Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. A study of the entire literature of importance about the family, particularly the law codes.

#### Modern Family and Its Problems

30. **The influence of a severe loss of income from accustomed sources upon family life.** Robert C. Angell, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Case histories of family readjustments during the depression, 1929-33, among the families of college students—approximately fifty cases.

31. **Interaction patterns in normal families.** Howard W. Beers, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Ithaca, New York. Data from one hundred farm families in four areas. Case analyses are based on personal interviews.

32. **A study of attitudes and problems connected with the adoption of young children.** Lee M. Brooks, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Preliminary study connected with an M.A. thesis by Miss Jacqueline Johnson.

33. **Periods or cycles of family development and experiences in relation to standards of living and the ability to provide.** E. L. Kirkpatrick, 315 Agricultural Hall, Madison, Wisconsin.

34. **Ways and means in which selected families and communities have maintained their standards of living in the light of economic and social change.** *Idem.*

35. **Biography of a Chinatown family: A case study of institutional change with particular attention to the effectiveness of changing external pressure upon the organization of family relationships.** Richard Tracy LaPiere, Box 2622, Stanford University, California.



36. **The family in Louisiana.** E. H. Lott, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. The study is limited to white and colored families which are represented by students in colleges and universities of the state in 1932-33.

37. **The facts of marriage and divorce—An international study of some statistical source material in all counties and chief cities from the earliest years to the present day.**—In two volumes. C. W. Margold, 384 W. Grand Avenue, Highland Park, Michigan.

38. **Analysis of statements made by parties in divorce litigation.** Leon C. Marshall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland. About 4,000 statements by parties in divorce, annulment, and alimony actions disposed of in Ohio from July 1 to December 31, 1930.

39. **The divorce court: Volume II, Ohio.** Leon C. Marshall and Geoffrey May, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland. Divorce, annulment, and alimony actions (9,237) disposed of in Ohio from July 1 to December 31, 1930. Divorce, annulment and alimony actions (11,591) filed in Ohio, July 1 to December 31, 1929, with disposition as of December 31, 1930. Some treatment of desertion and non-support actions. Divorce law in Ohio. Court procedure in divorce. Statistical system for the state. Data collected by clerks of court, checked by field workers, processed by the Hollerith machines.

40. **The determination of the sociological factors of normal family life.** William G. Mather, Jr., Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. Autobiographical studies of college students' families, written during the last three years, will be used as source materials.

41. **An analysis of Mexican and American marriages in Colorado.** T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, and C. A. Anderson, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Data were secured from the records of 3,300 marriage licenses issued in Conejos County between 1896 and 1932. Data on age, residence, descent, previous marriage, termination of previous marriage, and relationship were secured.

42. **A study of selected factors in family life as evidenced in life history material.** Mildred B. Thurow, under direction of Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Ithaca, New York. Data from two hundred life histories of advanced students of Cornell University.

43. **Family budgets and standards of living.** Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. (See XXXVIII, 730, No. 40.)

#### PEOPLES AND CULTURAL GROUPS

(See also 13, 27, 35, 74, 76, 87, 90, 246)

44. **The Filipino in the United States.** Paul G. Cressey, New York University, New York City.

45. **The Chinese colonization of Hawaii: A study in race-mixture and assimilation.** Clarence E. Glick, University of Chicago, Chicago.

46. **The social status of women of Chinese-Hawaiian ancestry.** Doris M. Lorden, 6102 Kenwood Avenue, Chicago.

47. **Cost of living of one hundred Mexican wage-earner families in San Diego, California.** Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles.

48. **Environmental influences of Mexican children in San Diego.** *Idem.*

49. **Prohibition and the foreign born.** *Idem.* The study is confined chiefly to California and New York. Data include such statistical and case materials as are available. Field observations.

50. **The culture of an isolated Negro community.** Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence. A Negro community in Oklahoma in which no persons of other races are permitted to live is being studied intensively both as to history and present conditions. All cultural aspects will be included with the intention of describing the culture of the American Negro when released from a position of subordination to the white race in the local community.

51. **Our American-born citizens of Oriental ancestry.** William C. Smith, William Jewell College, Liberty, Missouri. The study was initiated on the Pacific coast in 1923 and then continued in the Hawaiian Islands in the period 1926-29. The main reliance has been placed on "life-histories" secured from the persons concerned.

#### CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS

52. **Interracial homicides in the South.** H. C. Brearley, Clemson College, South Carolina. The study is confined to the Southern states, especially since 1920, although some earlier data have been collected, e.g., information upon the extent of interracial slayings during slavery.

53. **Community factors in adjustment and non-adjustment of Negro youth in Chicago.** Earl R. Moses, 3032 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago.

#### POPULATION AND TERRITORIAL GROUPS

##### Demography and Population

(See also 94, 100, 118, 254, 272)

54. **The composition and characteristics of New York State population.** W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

55. **The movement of population to and from New York State.** *Idem.*

56. **Population trends in New York State, 1900 to 1930.** *Idem.*

57. **Births, deaths, marriages, and the depression in Buffalo.** Niles Carpenter, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.

58. **Population movement in the Buffalo metropolitan area.** *Idem.*

59. **Population migration in North Carolina by age, sex, and color for rural farm, rural-non-farm, and urban classes, 1920-1930.** C. Horace Hamilton, State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, North Carolina.

60. **Claremont: A study of contemporary culture.** William Kirk, Pomona College, Claremont, California.

61. **The American community in Shanghai.** Herbert D. Lamson, University of Shanghai, Shanghai, China.

62. **Population trends in the three major cities of Minnesota.** Calvin F. Schmid, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

63. **The migration of Louisiana Negroes.** T. Lynn Smith, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge. Five thousand schedules secured from the families of Negro students in Louisiana high schools in 1932.

64. **The population of Louisiana, its composition and changes.** *Idem.*

65. **Changes in population of counties of Michigan due to genetic factors and migration.** J. F. Thaden, Michigan State College, East Lansing.

##### Human Ecology and Human Geography

(See also 5, 213)

66. **Regional types and trends in Illinois: A study of ecological organization.** E. T. Hiller, 328 Lincoln Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana. Differential population composition and changes since 1890; variation in types and characteristics of social organizations in different areas of the state. The data are drawn from descriptive materials and from census reports on: population; the structure or activities of schools and churches; index of newspaper circulation, of radios, automobiles, etc., to the population, nationality antecedents, etc.

67. **Occupations of French and English in the province of Quebec.** Everett C. Hughes, McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

68. **The banana empire: a study of the North American fruit industry in the countries of the Caribbean.** Charles D. Kepner, Jr., 89 East Main Street, Stafford Springs, Connecticut. (See XXXVIII, 738, No. 116.)

69. **Women in industry in Russia.** Susan M. Kingsbury and Mildred Fairchild' Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania. In 1930-31, eight months were spent in Russia, and in the summer of 1932 two months, in study for this piece of research. Nine towns were studied, covering thirty-five factories, together with various national organizations that would have to do with the problem.

70. **Trends in town-country relations.** J. H. Kolb, College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

71. **Ecological succession in Hawaii.** Andrew W. Lind, University of Hawaii, Honolulu.

72. **Ecological study of St. Louis—especially identification of areas of disorganization and factors involved therein.** Stuart A. Queen, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.

73. **The relations between Tacoma, Washington, and eastern Asia.** John Adrian Rademaker, 820 North 13th Street, Tacoma, Washington. (See XXXVIII, 737, No. 96.)

74. **American-born Orientals on the Pacific coast.** J. F. Steiner, University of Washington, Seattle.

75. **Determination of natural area and census tract boundaries for the City of Detroit.** Clark Tibbitts, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

76. **The Persians in Chicago.** Mostafa Vaziri (formerly Abbasi), 5721 Kenwood Avenue, Chicago.

77. **An ecological study of mortality in Indianapolis.** R. Clyde White, 122 E. Michigan Street, Indianapolis, Indiana.

#### THE URBAN COMMUNITY AND THE CITY

(See also 115, 210, 217, 222, 263)

78. **A study of the institutions of a city area.** Lucy J. Chamberlain, New York University, New York City.

79. **A sociological study of a public library in an interstitial area.** Bertha T. Hirshstein, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.

80. **The native migrant as a lodger in the city illustrates the ecological processes of urban life and the segregation and development of personality types.** Will Ireland, 1205 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago.

81. **Urbanization in Texas.** Carl M. Rosenquist, 1709 University Station, Austin, Texas.

82. **The social rôle of the motion picture in an interstitial area.** Frederic M. Thrasher and Paul G. Cressey, New York University, New York City.

#### THE RURAL COMMUNITY

(See also 211)

83. **The composition of rural households in Genesee County, New York.** W. A. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

84. **The interests and activities of rural young men, fifteen to twenty-four years of age.** *Idem.*

85. **The mobility of rural families in Genesee County, New York, 1930.** *Idem.*

86. **The mobility of sons and daughters in 2,500 rural families of Genesee County, New York.** *Idem.*

87. **The sociology of a typical Slovakian village.** Arnost Blaha, Masaryk University, Brno, Czechoslovakia.

88. **The determination of functioning economic and social areas in a county.** William V. Dennis, assisted by H. J. Bonser, Pennsylvania State College, State College.

89. **A controlled experiment in rural hygiene in Syria.** Stuart C. Dodd, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Syria. Ten complete villages were surveyed, filling out

schedules of approximately 300 questions on each of 600 families between 1931 and 1933.

90. Socio-economic study of the hinterland peoples of the Arkansas Ozarks. M. E. Frampton, College of the Ozarks, Clarksville, Arkansas.

91. Annual estimate of changes in farm population. C. J. Galpin, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

92. The organization and functioning of rural local government in Kentucky and possible adjustments therein, as related to farm taxes and to the continuance of effective governmental services. *Idem.*

93. Rural industries as factors affecting the standard of living of farm families. *Idem.*

94. Rural police and rural population: an analysis of their interrelations. Willy Gierlichs, 2782 Yale Station, New Haven, Connecticut.

95. Extent and trends of farm tenancy in North Carolina by age and color of tenant. C. Horace Hamilton, State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, North Carolina.

96. Family functions and relationships. *Idem.*

97. Rural families in Michigan. C. R. Hoffer, Michigan State College, East Lansing. This project involves a detailed analysis of data pertaining to families, which are published by the Census Bureau as a part of the Fifteenth Census. Also, data in the Census of Agriculture are used and certain facts pertaining especially to families in various community surveys.

98. Rural trade centers in Michigan. *Idem.*

99. A study of selected farm families. Roy H. Holmes, 602 East Liberty Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

100. Population mobility in rural Connecticut. J. L. Hypes, Storrs, Connecticut. (Victor A. Rapport, joint author.)

101. A comparative study of attitudes, aptitudes, and social behavior of rural youth: 4-H club members, and non-members. D. E. Lindstrom, 220 New Agricultural Building, Urbana, Illinois.

102. Local group organization among Illinois farm people. *Idem.*

103. Social forces affecting rural organization. *Idem.*

104. The activities and interests of rural young people 15-25 years of age. C. E. Lively and Lester Miller, Ohio State University, Columbus.

105. Rural social organization in the Prairie Grove area, Washington County, Arkansas, and in the Stuttgart area, Arkansas County, Arkansas. Thomas C. McCormick, Fayetteville, Arkansas.

106. The town and country church in relation to the rural community. Eben Mumford, J. L. Charlton, and Margaret Cawood, Michigan State College, East Lansing.

107. Farm organization membership and high-school attendance of farm youth in relation to neighborhood and community life. Eben Mumford, J. F. Thaden, and Margaret Cawood, Michigan State College, East Lansing.

108. The standard of living of farm families in relation to types of farming, fertility of soils, farm practices, farm income, and community advantages. *Idem.*

109. Case studies of communities. Eben Mumford and Staff, Michigan State College, Department of Sociology, East Lansing. This project includes a case study of town-country communities in Michigan, selected with reference to size of population of center (village, town, or city) and to geographical and agricultural factors.

110. The use of the vote as an approach to the study of rural social attitudes. Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

111. The effect of the use of electricity on the farm income, organization, and management, and upon the psychic and social conditions of the farm family. Burwell B. Powell, College Park, Maryland.

112. **Land tenure by Japanese for agricultural purposes in the Puget Sound region (of the State of Washington).** John Adrian Rademaker, 820 North 13th Street, Tacoma, Washington.

113. **A study of rural community areas in New York State.** Dwight Sanderson, assisted by W. A. Anderson, Dallas Mallison, and others. Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Ithaca, New York.

114. **Rural social organization in Fairfield County, Ohio.** Raymond C. Smith, Ohio State University, Columbus.

115. **The rural homes of city workers and the urban-rural migration.** Leland B. Tate, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Ithaca, New York.

116. **Migration of agricultural wealth as indicated by the settlement of agricultural estates in selected Ohio counties.** E. D. Tetreau, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

117. **The farmer's standard of living—effect of income on living conditions.** E. A. Willson, State College Station, Fargo, North Dakota.

118. **Primary population groups and social organization—structure and function of rural groups, changes which have occurred, and factors influencing these changes.** *Idem.*

#### COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL CONTROL

(See also 18, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 30, 33, 240, 245, 248, 252)

119. **Nature and history of superstition.** Brewton Berry, University of Missouri, Columbia. Current superstitions are being collected, classified; together with their counterparts in primitive society, in the effort to understand their nature and functions, and perhaps their origin.

120. **Behavior in times of social crisis (what breakdown is there in personal organization in times of flood, famine, earthquakes, etc.?).** Ruth Shonle Cavan, 1608 Crosby Street, Rockford, Illinois.

121. **The prison community: A sociological study of a restricted society.** Donald Clemmer, 907 South Lincoln Street, Chicago.

122. **A corpus of superstitions of the Near East.** Stuart C. Dodd, Students, and Colleagues, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Syria.

123. **Cultural patterning in secret societies.** Noel P. Gist, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

124. **The natural history of the proletariat: the social psychology of a class.** Ira H. Latimer, 5559 University Avenue, Chicago.

125. **The nature and causes of fashion, methods of spread and decline.** Paul H. Nystrom, Columbia University, New York City.

126. **An analysis of ex-slave biographies.** E. Ophelia Settle, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee. One hundred interviews with living ex-slaves in the state of Tennessee, especially middle Tennessee, collected during the period 1930-32.

127. **The worker and his publics.** Walter T. Watson, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas. Based on 169 documents (67 from Dallas whites, 18 from Dallas Negroes, 42 from Denton, Texas, and 42 from Whiting, Indiana) describing attitudes of workers. Years: 1929, 1931.

128. **The motion picture as a social stimulus: an analysis of a sample of fan letters written by readers of a popular film monthly.** Malcolm M. Willey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

129. **Cultural participation and race.** Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh.

130. **Cultural participation and sex.** *Idem.*

131. **Sex differences in stereotypes.** Erle Fiske Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles

132. **The unemployed co-operative movement.** Pauline V. Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

## Social Movements

133. **The Catholic and Christian labor movement in Germany, and its relations to the Socialist Unions.** Everett C. Hughes, McGill University, Montreal, Canada. The data are primarily historical, including many controversial brochures, reports and other documents of the movement itself. The statistics of the government on population, occupations, religions, and trade unions are also included. Interviews with leaders of the movement, visits to headquarters, etc. About 1870 to date.

134. **The natural history of the German youth movement.** Erle Fiske Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. (See XXXVIII, 729, No. 16.)

## Public Opinion and the Press

(See also 260, 262)

135. **Opinions regarding race and nationality traits.** L. L. Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. Study of the opinions regarding the traits of forty different peoples as held by some four thousand individuals selected from different sections of the United States. Check-sheets, somewhat on the order of questionnaires, were used. The results will be tabulated on the basis of place of birth, place of residence, sex, age, occupation, religion, and nationality.

136. **Analysis of the nature and functions of the public.** Carroll D. Clark, Department of Sociology, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

137. **Propaganda serials.** S. C. Gilfillan for H. W. Odum, 5623 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago. Serial publications, numbering 581, of a propaganda nature, excluding the religious, labor, and purely political, of the United States and Canada, from 1911 to 1931, found in the research libraries of the two countries, some 200 or so, making 168,000 separate counts of a serial in a library, further multiplied by counting each serial separately for each period not longer than twenty-one years. The serials were distinguished by nineteen fields, and by year, so as to provide a year-by-year measure and comparison of the amount of activity through propaganda serials in each field, on the supposition that the more important the serial, the more libraries would have it.

138. **The human-interest story.** Helen Gregory MacGill, McGill University, Montreal, Canada. American metropolitan newspapers, and some German papers from Berlin are included. Reviewing history of the newspaper, but principally from the last two decades of the nineteenth century to today, this being the time when human-interest stories became popular and common in newspapers. Data: clippings, newspaper biographies.

139. **Factors in the presidential election of 1932.** Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

140. **The Negro in the white newspapers of Philadelphia.** George E. Simpson, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

141. **Selective factors affecting the decline in numbers of weekly newspapers in the United States (1900-1930) as they relate to professed political affiliation.** Malcolm M. Willey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Based on data for 22,000 individual papers.

142. **The weekly foreign language newspaper in the United States: an analysis of the persistence of foreign language papers, with special reference to professed political affiliations.** *Idem.*

143. **Mobility of public opinion and certain related factors.** Erle Fiske Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. An ecological and statistical study of the 1924, 1928, and 1932 elections in metropolitan Los Angeles. The proportion of votes cast for Democratic electors is computed for each precinct and is given a quintile placement. The areas are then classified in terms of changes in quintile placement from one election to another, and the results correlated with the economic level and other indexes of the area.

## Leadership

144. **The American statesman.** Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence. A study of 2,000 persons listed in *The Biographical Directory of the American Congress, 1774-1927*, selected by random sample so as to embrace the period covered by the encyclopedia. All of the available data listed in the volume will be used. Comparison will be made with other studies of eminent men, as well as comparisons of statesmen of earlier and later periods.

145. **A new list of the one thousand most eminent men of history.** *Idem.* The one thousand most eminent men of history, determined according to the amount of space given to them in biographical dictionaries of international scope—one American, one English, one French, one German, one Spanish, and one Italian encyclopedia.

146. **Negro leadership.** T. Lynn Smith and Martha C. Ray, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge. Schedules have been filled in by 336 Negro leaders of the state of Louisiana. These schedules contain information pertaining to age, sex, occupation, background, religion, social participation, etc., of the leaders.

147. **Longevity of famous men.** Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh. Relationship between longevity and occupation, comparing different generations. Data largely obtained from *Dictionary of American Biography*.

148. **Mobility of famous Americans.** *Idem.* Comprehensive study tracing the mobility of persons listed in *Who's Who in America*.

## Recreation

(See also 28, 84, 104, 180, 186)

149. **The public schools and the problem of leisure.** Eugene T. Lies, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

150. **The place of the fine arts in the life of a community.** George A. Lundberg, Columbia University, New York City. (See XXXVIII, 742, No. 163.)

151. **Recreation in a suburban area.** *Idem.* (See XXXVIII, 742, No. 164.)

152. **The amounts of time devoted to various activities with special emphasis on leisure.** George A. Lundberg and Mirra Komarovsky, Columbia University, New York City.

## Educational Sociology

(See also 79, 149)

153. **Professional stereotypes.** L. L. Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. An attempt, by experimental methods, to get at the manner in which preconceptions color and determine the type and form of the responses made by professors to intellectual problems and propositions.

154. **Racial-social distance and educational status (as indicated by southern university students).** Lee M. Brooks, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

155. **The interaction of education and social change on the community level.** Edmund deS. Brunner, Columbia University, New York City. Data are gathered on socio-economic matters related to community life, social changes within the community, school changes within the same period, and evidences of interaction.

156. **Children who have dropped out of school in Lawrence, Kansas, 1930-1932.** Mabel A. Elliott, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

157. **Moral attitudes of college students.** *Idem.*

158. **A study of junior high school pupils from broken homes.** Karl B. Greenlee, Des Moines, Iowa.

159. **Adult education in a suburban area.** George A. Lundberg, Columbia University, New York City.

160. **Borrowers from libraries for the blind—number, distribution, and kinds of reading-matter borrowed.** Evelyn C. McKay, American Foundation for the Blind, 125 E. 46th Street, New York City.

161. **Certain phases of adult education in farm organizations.** Barton Morgan, Iowa State College, Ames.
162. **Research problems and trends in educational sociology.** E. George Payne, New York University, Washington Square East, New York City.
163. **Negro education and the development of a group tradition.** Irwin V. Shannon, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee. The teaching of Negro life and history in colleges and universities for Negroes as a movement to develop a group tradition.
164. **A study of the socio-economic and mental status of two hundred Negro children selected from contrasted cultural communities.** Anna J. Thompson, 731 Fairmont Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
165. **Experimental approach to the teaching of social sciences in high school.** Ellen Winston, 120 Forest Road, Raleigh, North Carolina.
166. **Experimental methods in vocational guidance.** *Idem.*
167. **A study of 9,000 women on the faculties of American colleges and universities.** Chase Going Woodhouse, North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro. The training, occupational history, family status, research, outside activities, rank, and earnings of the women on the faculties of colleges and universities in all parts of the United States in 1931-32.
168. **Teaching Sociology I through experiences in analyzing typical communities.** L. D. Zeleny, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

#### SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

(See also 78)

169. **The effect of culture contact on Spartan Social Organization.** Howard Becker 215 Crescent Street, Northampton, Massachusetts. Archaeological and historical data on the Aegean and Eastern Mediterranean regions for the period 600-300 B.C.
170. **The Metic's contribution to the great age of Athens: A study of the effect of Ionian migration and culture contact.** *Idem.* Archaeological and historical data on the Aegean and Eastern Mediterranean regions; 600-300 B.C.
171. **Stratification and mobility in primitive society.** Brewton Berry, University of Missouri, Columbia. Examination of ethnographical data.
172. **Inductive study of factors in the practical application of socialistic principles.** Seba Eldridge, University of Kansas, Lawrence.
173. **Claremont: A study of contemporary culture.** William Kirk, Pomona College, Claremont, California.
174. **Evolution of culture.** Maurice Parmelee, 8 Bank Street, New York City.
175. **Sociological and psychological significance of clothing.** *Idem.*
176. **Cosmopolitan conversation: A study of the growth, nationality, and language problems of international conferences, 1840-1929.** Herbert N. Shenton, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.

#### Social Evolution

177. **Invention in the history of the ship: a sociological study of technic evolution.** S. C. Gilfillan, 5623 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago.

#### Sociology of Religion

(See also 10)

178. **The nature and function of religion.** Brewton Berry, University of Missouri, Columbia.
179. **Church unity movements in the United States.** H. Paul Douglass, Institute of Social and Religious Research, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.
180. **The suburban church and leisure.** Mary Alice McNerny, 230 County Office building, White Plains, New York. Westchester County 1932-33. Interviews and



questionnaires from clergymen covering the rôle of the church in the leisure of a suburban area.

181. **The rural churches of Allegany County, New York.** William G. Mather, Jr., Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

182. **A study of the Protestant church in the apartment house areas of the urban environment.** Elmer L. Setterlund, Hastings College, Hastings, Nebraska.

#### SOCIAL PROBLEMS

183. **Research toward finding a better contraceptive.** C. P. Blacker, 26 Eccleston Street, London, S.W. 1, England.

184. **Publication of medical works on problems in sterility, fertility, and conjugal adjustment, including *A Thousand Marriages* by Dr. R. L. Dickinson.** Louise S. Bryant, National Committee on Maternal Health, Inc., 5th Avenue at 103d Street, New York City.

185. **Research study in spermaticides, under the direction of Dr. F. A. E. Crew, of the University of Edinburgh.** *Idem.*

186. **A sociological study of voluntary associations with special reference to some urban-rural-suburban contrasts.** Mirra Komarovsky, 145 Crown Street, Brooklyn, New York.

187. **Social pathology in China.** Herbert D. Lamson, University of Shanghai, Shanghai, China.

188. **State administration of public health in Iowa.** N. W. McGee, 910 S. Dodge Street, Iowa City, Iowa.

189. **Data on causes of blindness, with emphasis on Etiology.** Evelyn C. McKay, American Foundation for the Blind, 125 East 46th Street, New York City.

190. **Decline in work available for blind piano-tuners.** *Idem.*

191. **Living with social outcasts and those who deal with them: An autobiography of the author based upon forty years' intimate experience with the various groups.** Ben L. Reitman, 426 Aldine Avenue, Chicago. Various groups include: (a) tramps, hobos, bums, dopes; (b) racketeers and criminals with new classifications; (c) sex delinquents, offenders, and exploiters; (d) anarchists, socialists, I.W.W., and communists; (e) breachers, reformers, politicians, social workers, and social scientists.

192. **A joint psychiatric and sociological study of boys in a high delinquency area.** Lowell S. Selling, 907 S. Lincoln Street, Chicago.

193. **Survey of the traffic in women and children in the East.** Report prepared and submitted to the Council on the League of Nations. William F. Snow, American Social Hygiene Association, 450 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

194. **A study of the range of social contacts.** Dorothy Swaine Thomas and Mirra Komarovsky, 145 Crown Street, Brooklyn, New York.

195. **Research studies of cause and effect, prevention and cure of narcotic drug addiction.** William C. White, Cosmos Club, Washington, D.C.

196. **The increase of mental disease.** Ellen Winston, 120 Forest Road, Raleigh, North Carolina.

#### Dependency

(See also 223, 224, 225, 226, 229, 234, 268)

197. **A social analysis of 500 homeless men.** Niles Carpenter, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York.

198. **Volume, distribution, and cost of child dependency in New York State.** James H. Foster and Robert Axel, State Department of Social Welfare, State Office Building, Albany, New York.

199. **Volume, distribution, and cost of child dependency, in New York State, 1932, and comparisons with data for previous year.** *Idem.*

200. **Homeless men in Seattle.** Allen R. Potter, 1221 E. 61st Street, Seattle, Washington.

201. **Sociological facts concerning applicants for old-age relief in New York State.** David M. Schneider, State Department of Social Welfare, State Office Building, Albany, New York.

202. **Sociological facts concerning first admissions to public homes in New York State.** *Idem.*

#### Crime and Delinquency\*

(See also 17, 227, 251, 255, 261, 269, 270, 271)

203. **Juvenile delinquency as related to immigration.** Clairette P. Armstrong, 51 East 90th Street, New York City.

204. **The history of federal prison administration.** Margaret M. Callaghan, 225 West 14th Street, New York City.

205. **Juvenile delinquency in San Bernardino County, California.** Glen E. Carlson, University of Redlands, Redlands, California.

206. **A study of the methods and facilities employed in the United States for the detention of delinquent, dependent, and neglected children.** Charles L. Chute, National Probation Association, 450 7th Avenue, New York City.

207. **The collection and interpretation of facts about American prisons and reformatories, and the publication of the Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories.** William B. Cox, National Society of Penal Information, Inc., 114 East 30th Street, New York City.

208. **The delinquency triangle in Chicago.** Evelyn Buchan Crook, 143 Kilsyth Road, Brookline, Massachusetts.

209. **Analysis of the criminal cases in the Common Pleas Courts of Ohio, January 1 to June 30, 1930.** C. E. Gehlke with Katherine Biehl, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

210. **Male juvenile delinquency in Greater Cleveland 1928-1931: its geographical distribution and correlation with other social phenomena.** *Idem.*

211. **Study of rural criminal justice.** Bruce Smith, Institute of Public Administration, 302 East 35th Street, New York City.

212. **Completion of a survey of the research being conducted in criminology in the United States and abroad and the determination of the feasibility of establishing an institute of criminology in America.** Jerome Michael, Columbia University, New York City.

213. **The development of an actively functioning state bureau of crime information.** Rufus E. Miles, Ohio Institute, Columbus, Ohio. In this bureau will be centralized as far as possible the data necessary for the formation of legislative and administrative policies and procedure relating to crime and to keep the public currently advised as to the extent of crime.

214. **Study of a five-year experiment in the Massachusetts State Prison Colony at Norfolk.** Francis B. Sayre, Department of Correction, State House, Boston, Massachusetts.

215. **A study of the post-institutional records of former inmates of the Massachusetts Women's Reformatory to develop and extend a predictability technique in the administration of criminal justice.** Francis B. Sayre, Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

216. **The decrease in the English prison population.** Edwin H. Sutherland, University of Chicago, Chicago. Number of persons committed to the several types of prisons in England and Wales in proportion to population, to crime rates, to prosecutions, and to other dispositions than imprisonment, 1857-1930.

\* For a more complete list of research projects in this field see *Criminological Research Bulletin No. 3*, Bureau of Social Hygiene, Inc., L. B. Dunham, Director, New York City.

217. **The distribution of crime in a metropolitan area.** Edwin H. Sutherland and Thomas G. Hutton, University of Chicago, Chicago. Burglaries and robberies, 1929-32, of chain stores in the Chicago metropolitan area, and other indexes of crime rates.

218. **Embezzlers and embezzlement.** *Idem.* Study concentrated on embezzlers in and near Chicago, with less intensive work on statistics of embezzlement in the United States and in European countries.

219. **Inmate work-habits and vocational training as factors in prison treatment and rehabilitation.** George B. Vold, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. An intensive statistical study of the previous work-habits and vocational training of a group of Minnesota State Prison inmates released on parole 1930-31, compared with a matched control group of non-criminal unemployed registered with the Unemployment Stabilization Research Institute during the same period.

#### SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND SOCIAL AGENCIES

220. **The administration of criminal justice in Franklin County, Ohio.** Wm. J. Blackburn, Jr., Ohio State University, Columbus.

221. **The relation between American foundations and the child welfare movement: 1920 to 1930.** Harold Coffman and E. C. Lindeman, Foundation Study, 129 E. 52d Street, New York City. This is an orthodox research utilizing interviewing primarily as the device for securing facts; the facts themselves are dealt with in terms of simple statistics; interpretations are inductive.

222. **Urban police systems and organizations in the United States.** Willy Gierlichs, 2782 Yale Station, New Haven, Connecticut.

#### Social Work

223. **The bearing of social insurance and pensions on the function of family social work.** Philip Klein, New York School of Social Work, 122 East 22d Street, New York City.

224. **Trends in volume and distribution of social service activities in New York State.** David M. Schneider and Robert Axel, State Department of Social Welfare, Albany, New York.

225. **A monthly summary of unemployment relief experience.** Margaret Wead, 130 East 22d Street, New York City. A series of monthly summaries based on the reported experience of family welfare societies throughout the country on specific questions asked monthly.

226. **Case work with new poor.** Pauline V. Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. Three hundred pages of typewritten material in life-history form of families and individuals, material portraying community problems, social economic problems, problems of family welfare agencies, etc.

#### Social Agencies and Community Planning

227. **A survey of the functional organization of certain Michigan cities for the control of juvenile delinquency.** Lowell Juilliard Carr, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

228. **Changes and trends of certain rural social agencies in Ohio, 1920-1930.** C. E. Lively, Ohio State University, Columbus.

229. **The adequacy of the relief program in the city of Providence, Rhode Island, entitled *Study of Relief Situation in Providence*.** Clarence A. Pretzer, 100 North Main Street, Providence, Rhode Island.

230. **Distribution of social service facilities in New York State.** David M. Schneider, New York School of Social Work, 122 East 22d Street, New York City. This study is a part of a larger study of the distribution of social service facilities in the United States, and is a preliminary report on the distribution of social service facilities in New York State. The study is based on a survey of social service agencies in New York State, and is a preliminary report on the distribution of social service facilities in New York State.

## Social Legislation

232. Old age pension in Ramsey County, Minnesota. C. A. Lundquist, University Farm, St. Paul, Minnesota.

233. Expenditure under special blind-relief laws. Evelyn C. McKay, American Foundation for the Blind, 125 East 46th Street, New York City.

234. A model unemployment reserves, employees' savings, and compensation law. Earl E. Muntz, 1 Park Avenue, West Orange, New Jersey. Study of all European and American unemployment insurance laws, proposed and in effect, their weaknesses, and possible applicability to the American economic and social organization.

235. The history of public welfare administration in New York State. David M. Schneider, State Department of Social Welfare, Albany, New York.

236. German social insurance statistics. R. Clyde White, 122 E. Michigan Street, Indianapolis, Indiana. The aim is to trace statistically the growth of German social insurance and where possible to relate it to price and cost-of-living indexes. Sources and investment of funds will be considered.

## RESEARCH METHODS

(See also 19, 29, 39, 219)

237. A study of the spontaneous responses of kindergarten children to the material and social stimuli of the daily "work period." Ruth E. Arrington, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Connecticut.

238. Scientific methods in sociology. Charles A. Ellwood, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina. All works in English on sociological methodology, also leading works on scientific methodology in general.

239. Social science research organization in American universities and colleges. Wilson Gee, University, Virginia.

240. Analysis of stilled motion pictures in the search for a "true record" of social behavior. Alice Loomis, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Connecticut. Observational study, in stilled motion pictures, of definite aspects of behavior previously observed by four recorders on films run at normal and at slow speed. Continuation of one small phase of the observational studies on which a report of progress to date is being made by the Unit of Social Science Methodology.

241. A study to determine the accuracy of memory recall in testimony. Elon H. Moore, Oregon State College, Corvallis. A survey of all literature on the subject of memory recall with special attention to experimental studies. The development of a battery of tests to supplement previous studies.

242. Methods of direct research and experimentation in cultural relations. Constantine Panunzio, University of California, Los Angeles.

243. A new list of the one thousand most eminent men in history. Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

244. Boys' club study of New York University. Frederic M. Thrasher, New York University, 100 Washington Square East, New York City.

245. Some methods in clinical psycho-sociology. Verne Wright, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

246. Methods of studying cultural groups. Pauline V. Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

247. Processes and methods of social research interviewing as an aid in study of personality. *Idem*. Study covers period of seven to eight years and consists of personal interviews, analyses of interviews made by many types of social scientists, social workers, journalists, etc.

## Statistical Techniques

248. Observation of social behavior in industrial work: A supplementary report. Alice Loomis, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Connecticut.

249. Review of methods of measuring natality, morality, and reproduction trends. Frank Lorimer, 2100 Nineteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
250. Survey of data on qualitative population trends in the United States and causes of variations in natality. *Idem.*
251. Unlocking the treasures of the trial courts. Leon C. Marshall, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland.
252. Wawokiye Camp: An experimental study of group adjustment. Wilber I. Newstetter, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. (See XXXVIII, 742, No. 167.)
253. Social statistics in the United States. Stuart A. Rice, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
254. Analysis of population and vital statistics of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, by census tracts. Frederick F. Stephan, 711 Wabash Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
255. The reliability of criminal statistics. Edwin H. Sutherland and C. C. Van Vechten, Jr., University of Chicago, Chicago.

#### Units, Scales, Tests, and Ratings

256. Development of a revised form of instrument for measuring success in marriage. Jessie Bernard, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
257. An experiment to determine the relative merits of the method of paired comparisons and the method of ranking in evaluating test items. *Idem.*
258. Measurement of socio-economic status. F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
259. A test for social distances in the Near East. Stuart C. Dodd and Miss Xanthippe Calliondji, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Syria.
260. Study of factors in voters' attitudes and opinions. Seba Eldridge, University of Kansas, Lawrence.
261. A test for attitudes of delinquents. Lowell S. Selling, 907 S. Lincoln Street, Chicago.

#### Collection of Data

262. The "questionnaire approach" to the study of social attitudes. Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

#### Correlation

263. Certain limitations on the use of correlation techniques in census tract materials. C. E. Gehlke with Katherine A. Biehl and K. N. Hawk, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. Effects of the size and combinations of areas used upon the size of the correlation coefficient and correlation ratio; material used; census tract data, Cleveland, 1930; 1,000 rural counties of the United States; results of grouping on correlations of data of coin-tossing experiments.
264. Some problems in the correlation of spatially distributed variables. Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pennsylvania.
265. Statistical correlations in time and space. Frederick F. Stephan, 711 Wabash Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. An examination of the difficulties which have been encountered in correlating time series of social data and also ecological distributions with illustrations from studies of marriages in Allegheny County, vital statistics and juvenile delinquency studies.

#### Curves and Curve Fitting

266. Curve diagnosis. Roswell H. Johnson, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Means by which the form of a curve may be quickly ascertained without "trial and error."

#### Forecasting Techniques

267. The prediction of successful and unsuccessful adjustment in marriage. E. W. Burgess and L. S. Cottrell, Jr., University of Chicago, Chicago. Schedules and case studies are collected from married couples. Chiefly limited to persons living in Illinois who have been married not more than six years.

268. Predicting the total case load of relief agencies, 1932 to 1934. F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

269. An attempt to apply prediction methods to the problems of classification and treatment of adult male prisoners. George B. Vold, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

270. A check on the workability of parole prediction tables. *Idem.*

271. Predicting outcome on probation. Chas. H. Young, 7 Reservoir Avenue, Ithaca, New York.

#### Rates and Ratios

272. Reliability of rates based on populations of different sizes, and significance of differences. Robt. E. Chaddock, Columbia University, New York City.

#### Mechanical Aids

273. Spot-map machine. Erle Fiske Young, University of Southern California, Los Angeles. Design of machine for locating and placing of spots on locality maps for ecological study.

#### Late Returns

274. Village organization in North China. Leonard S. Hsu, Cato Young, and H. C. Chang, Yenching University, Peiping, China. The study is in three parts. Part One is a case study of one village near Peiping (Peking). Part Two deals with extensive studies of Shantung, Shansi, Hopei, and Honan. Part Three is an analysis based upon the material in Parts One and Two.

275. A child worker study. Katharine D. Lumpkin and Dorothy W. Douglas, Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts. A study of economic and customary factors in the work-life of boys and girls 14-15 years of age who had completed a grade in school normal or accelerated for their age. (A control group is also taken of children who did not stop school to go to work until after fifteen.)

276. Some basic factors in the development of public opinion in Japan. J. Paul Reed, 5800 Maryland Avenue, Chicago.

## TWENTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

### TENTATIVE PROGRAM

The American Sociological Society will hold its Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, December 27-30, 1933, with headquarters at the Hotel Adelphia. Meeting in Philadelphia during the same time are the American Economic Association, the American Statistical Association, the American Farm Economics Association, and the American Association for Labor Legislation.

#### WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 27

9:00-10:00 A.M. **Business Meeting**, for reports of committees and representatives of the Society.

10:00-12:00 A.M. **Division on Biological Sociology**. Warren S. Thompson, Miami University, presiding.

Some Consequences of Race Contact

"American-Born Orientals," Jesse F. Steiner, University of Washington.

"The Unorthodox Character of Race Doctrine in Hawaii," Romanzo Adams, University of Hawaii.

Discussion by William C. Smith, Texas Christian University, and Chas. W. Coulter, Ohio Wesleyan University.

1:00-3:00 P.M. **Section on Rural Sociology**. Ernest Burnham, Western State Teachers College, presiding.

Race and Culture as Factors in Social Organization

"From the Social Worker's Standpoint," E. L. Morgan, University of Missouri.

"A Study of Rural Arkansas," T. C. McCormick, University of Arkansas.

"A Study of Rural Illinois," D. E. Lindstrom, University of Illinois.

"A Study in Rural New York," W. G. Mather, Jr., Cornell University.

"A Study of Japanese in the Puget Sound Region," J. A. Rademaker, Tacoma, Washington.

"A Study of the Ozark Mountaineer," M. E. Frampton, College of the Ozarks.

"A Study in Rural North Carolina," C. Horace Hamilton, North Carolina State College of Agriculture.

"A Study in Rural Ohio," R. C. Smith, Ohio State University.  
Discussion led by Willy Gierlichs, University of Cologne; William V. Dennis, Pennsylvania State College.

**Section on the Teaching of Sociology.** Maurice R. Davie, Yale University, presiding.

The Negro in America

"Negro Character as Revealed in Folk Lore," Newbell N. Puckett, Western Reserve University.

"Racial Attitudes of College Students," Charles S. Johnson, Fisk University.

Discussion by Guy B. Johnson, University of North Carolina; Donald Young, University of Pennsylvania.

**Section on the Community.** H. Paul Douglass, Institute of Social and Religious Research, presiding.

"Community Relations during the Depression," Niles Carpenter, University of Buffalo.

"A Study of Voluntary Organizations in Urban, Suburban, and Rural Areas," Mirra Komarovsky, Columbia University.

"Religious and Ethnic Communalism vs. the Larger Community," C. E. Silcox, Institute of Social and Religious Research.

3:00-5:00 P.M. **Section on the Sociology of Religion.** Frederic Siedenburg, S.J., University of Detroit, presiding.

"Race and Culture Contacts and the Changes Undergone by Jewish Religions," Abraham Cronbach, Hebrew Union College.

"Assimilation of the Foreigner and Our Present Citizenship Standards," Jerome Davis, Yale University.

**Section on Social Statistics.** C. E. Gehlke, Western Reserve University, presiding.

"A Test for Social Distances in the Near East," Stuart C. Dodd, American University of Beirut.

"Cultural Participation in Race," Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College.

**Section on Sociology and Social Work.** M. J. Karpf, Graduate School for Jewish Social Work, presiding.

Sociology and Child Care

"Some Sociological Principles underlying Child Development," Franklin Thomas, Hastings-on-the-Hudson, New York.

"Some Sociological Contributions to Care of Dependent Children," Joseph Bonapart, Los Angeles.

"How Accurate are Case Records," Elon H. Moore, Oregon State College.

5:00-6:00 P.M. **Meeting of the Executive Committee.**



8:00-10:00 P.M. **Division on Human Ecology.** E. A. Ross, University of Wisconsin, presiding.

Race Relations

"Race Relations in Certain Frontier Areas," Robert E. Park, University of Chicago.

"Border Areas in Central Europe," Max S. Handman, University of Michigan.

"Some Ecological Aspects of Race Relations," R. D. McKenzie, University of Michigan.

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 28

9:00-10:00 A.M. **Business Meeting.** Report of the Committee on the Revision of the Constitution.

10:00-12:00 A.M. **Division on Social Research.** George A. Lundberg, Columbia University, presiding.

"Methods of Predicting Adjustment in Marriage," Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., University of Chicago.

"The Reliability of Responses to Questionnaires on Social Attitudes," Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College.

"Moral Attitudes of College Students," Mabel Elliott, University of Kansas.

"Analysis of Stilled Motion Pictures in the Search of a Record of Social Behavior," Alice Loomis, Yale University.

"The Relative Merits of Paired Comparisons and the Method of Ranking in Evaluating Test Items," Jessie Bernard, Washington University.

"The Influence of a Severe Loss of Income from Accustomed Sources on Family Life," Robert C. Angell, University of Michigan.

"The Social Rôle of the Motion Picture in an Interstitial Area," Paul G. Cressey, New York University.

12:00-3:00 P.M. **Joint Luncheon session of the Section on Rural Sociology and the American Farm Economic Association.** H. R. Tolley, University of California, presiding.

The New Deal in Rural Culture

"From a Sociologist's Point of View," Edmund deS. Brunner, Teachers College, Columbia University.

"From an Economist's Point of View,"

Discussion by W. W. Wilcox, U.S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

1:00-3:00 P.M. **Section on Educational Sociology.** Jordan Cavan, Rockford College, presiding.

"Negro Education and the Development of a Group Tradition," Irwin V. Shannon, Vanderbilt University.

"The Vocational-Educational Program of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute," E. George Payne, School of Education, New York University.

**Section on Sociology and Psychiatry.** Thos. D. Eliot, Northwestern University, presiding.

Relations of Race and Culture Contacts to the Development of Personality Conflicts

"The Relation of Experiences of Discrimination to the Personality, Mentality, and Performance of Negro Children," A. S. Beckham, Institute for Juvenile Research.

Discussion by Charles S. Johnson, Fisk University; Melville J. Herskovits, Northwestern University.

"The Forming and Elaboration of Mental Disease Situations in Certain Cultures—a New Field for Special Research," John M. Cooper, Catholic University of America.

Discussion by Robert Redfield, University of Chicago.

3:00–5:00 P.M. **Section on the Family.** Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, presiding.

"The Relation of Home Background to Personality Adjustment of Adolescents," Ruth Shonle Cavan, University of Chicago.

"A Comparative Study of Divorce in Maryland and Ohio," L. C. Marshall, Johns Hopkins University.

**Section on the Teaching of Sociology.** Maurice R. Davie, Yale University, presiding.

Race and Culture Contacts

"The Relation between Culture Contact and Race Conflict," W. O. Brown, University of Cincinnati.

"The Jew and Racism," Nathan Miller, Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Discussion by Chas. W. Coulter, Ohio Wesleyan University.

**Section on the Sociology of Religion.** Frederic Siedenburg, S.J., University of Detroit, presiding.

"Nationality as a Determinant of Church Groupings," Samuel C. Kincheloe, Chicago Theological Seminary.

5:00–6:00 P.M. **Meeting of the Executive Committee.**

8:00–10:00 P.M. **Presidential addresses.**

#### FRIDAY, DECEMBER 29

9:00–10:00 A.M. **Business Meeting.**—Annual Election of Officers.

10:00–12:00 A.M. **Division on Social Psychology.** Fay B. Karpf, Graduate School for Jewish Social Work, presiding.

The Impact of Race and Culture Contact on Personality

"Negro Personality Changes under Conditions of Race and Culture Contact in a Southern American Community," Charles S. Johnson, Fisk University.

"Modification of Hawaiian Character since the Advent of the White Man," Andrew W. Lind, University of Hawaii.

"Culture and Personality among the Forest Bantu," Ellsworth Faris, University of Chicago.

1:00-3:00 P.M. **Section on Sociology and Social Work.** Stuart A. Queen, Washington University, presiding.

What Pre-Social Work Students Can Get from Sociology

"Concerning Cultures," Malcolm M. Willey, University of Minnesota.

"Concerning Groups," Katharine Jocher, University of North Carolina.

"Concerning Personality," Thomas D. Eliot, Northwestern University.

Summary by Stuart A. Queen, Washington University.

**Section on Educational Sociology.** Jordan Cavan, Rockford College, presiding.

"A Study of 9,000 Women on the Faculties of American Colleges and Universities," Chase Going Woodhouse, North Carolina College for Women.

"The Interaction of Education and Social Change on the Community Level," Edmund deS. Brunner, Teachers College, Columbia University.

**Section on the Community.** H. Paul Douglass, Institute of Social and Religious Research, presiding.

"Reorganization of Local Governments as a Phase of Community and Regional Planning," H. L. Lutz, Princeton University.

"The Local Reorganization of American Protestantism on a Community Basis," Benson Y. Landis, Federal Council of Churches.

**Joint Meeting of the Section on Sociology and Psychiatry with the American Association for Labor Legislation.** Thomas D. Eliot, Northwestern University, presiding.

Effects of Job Security and Insecurity on Personality

"Current American Methods of Handling Unemployment in the Light of Existing Psychiatric Knowledge," Helen Hill, Henry Street Settlement.

Discussion led by H. L. Lurie, Bureau of Jewish Social Research; Evan Clague,

"Psychic Effects of the New Russian Culture," Frankwood Williams, National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

Discussion by Jerome Davis, Yale University.

3:00-5:00 P.M. **Section on the Family.** Ernest R. Mowrer, Northwestern University, presiding.

"A Study of Selected Factors in Family Life as Described in Life-History Material," Mildred B. Thurow, Cornell University.

"Traditions and Patterns of Negro Family Life in the United States," E. Franklin Frazier, Fisk University.

Discussion.

**Joint Meeting of the Section on Social Statistics with the American Statistical Association.** C. E. Gehlke, Western Reserve University, presiding.

"Reliability of Rates in Census Tract Material," Frank A. Ross, Columbia University, F. F. Stephan, University of Pittsburgh, Robert E. Chaddock, Columbia University.

"Some Problems in the Correlation of Spatially Distributed Variables," Jerry A. Neprash, Franklin and Marshall College.

"Certain Effects of Grouping upon the Size of the Correlation Coefficient in Census Tract Material," C. E. Gehlke, Western Reserve University.

Demonstration of Machine for Map Spotting, Erle Fiske Young, University of Southern California.

**Section on Rural Sociology.** Carle C. Zimmerman, Harvard University, presiding.

Race and Culture as Factors in Social Organization (continued)

"Conditions in the Latinized Sections of the Old South," T. L. Smith, University of Louisiana.

"The Meeting of White, Colored, and Indian Cultures at the Converging of the New South and the West," O. D. Duncan, Oklahoma State College.

"The Mixture of Colonial Stock, the Newer Immigrants, and Urban Culture in New England Rural Regions," N. L. Whetten, Storrs Agricultural Experiment Station.

Discussion led by B. O. Williams, Clemson College; Paul H. Landis, South Dakota State College; Carl C. Taylor, Raleigh, North Carolina.

**Business Meeting of the Section on Rural Sociology.**

5:00-6:00 P.M. **Meeting of the Executive Committee.**

6:30 P.M. **Annual Dinner of the American Sociological Society.**

#### SATURDAY, DECEMBER 30

9:00-10:00 A.M. **Business Meeting.**

10:00-12:00 A.M. **Division on Social Institutions.** J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska, presiding.

Institutional Changes Incident to Race Contact

"Theoretical Implications of the Modification of Institutions as the Result of the Impact with a Different Race," J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska.

"The Development of Negro Social Institutions in the United States," Guy B. Johnson, University of North Carolina.

"European and American Indian Cultures in Contact," Clark Wissler, Yale University.

"Problems Arising from the Industrialization of Native Life in Central Africa," Chas. W. Coulter, Ohio Wesleyan University.  
Discussion by Donald R. Young, Social Science Research Council.

### TRANSPORTATION

Arrangements have been made with the New England, Western, Central, Southeastern, Southwestern, Trans-Continental, Trunk Line, and Canadian (Eastern Lines) Passenger Associations to grant reduced rates to all members of the American Sociological Society and the allied associations, as well as to the members of their families, provided one hundred are in attendance at the annual meeting and present certificates.

The following directions are submitted and members wishing to take advantage of the reduced rates must comply with them:

Do not make the mistake of asking for a "receipt." Tickets at the regular one-way tariff fare for the going journey may be obtained on the following dates only—December 23 to 29, inclusive. Certificates are not kept at all stations. If not obtainable at your home station, the agent will inform you at what station they can be obtained. You can in such case purchase a local ticket to the station which has certificates in stock, where you can purchase a through ticket and at the same time ask for and obtain a certificate to the place of meeting.

The reduced fare for the return journey will not apply unless your certificate is validated. A special agent of the railroad company will be in attendance to validate certificates December 27, 28, and the morning of the 29th. If you arrive at the meeting and leave for home again prior to the special agent's arrival, or if you arrive at the meeting later than the morning of December 29, after the special agent has left, you cannot have your certificate validated.

If the one hundred certificates are presented to the special agent, and your certificate is duly validated, you will be entitled to purchase, up to and including January 2, 1934, a return ticket via the same route over which you made the going journey, at *one-third* of the regular one-way tariff fare.

The time limit on the use of the ticket has been extended to thirty days; that is, a member must reach his destination within thirty days from the date of his going ticket as stamped on the certificate.

## NEWS AND NOTES

*Membership of the American Sociological Society.*—The new members received into the Society since the September issue and up to September 15 are as follows:

- Alt, Herschel, 6018 Westminster Place, St. Louis, Mo.  
Babcock, Frederick M., 52 Gould Place, Caldwell, N.J.  
Bellioti, Grace J., 153 West Ave., Buffalo, N.Y.  
Blackwell, Gordon W., 310 Graduate Club, Chapel Hill, N.C.  
Emery, Andrée M., Bennington College, Bennington, Vt.  
Fookes, Major James, Salvation Army, 3620 Finney Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Friedli, Alfred, 1215 Amherst Place, St. Louis, Mo.  
Garcia, Ernesto Alvarado, Av. C, Presid. No. 12, Ap. 31, Tegucigalpa, Honduras  
Hartshorne, E. Y., Jr., International House, University of Chicago, Chicago  
Jones, Harold E., 2683 Shasta Road, Berkeley, Calif.  
Landis, Paul H., Department of Rural Sociology, State College, Brookings, S.D.  
Lange, Philipp C., North Freedom, Wis.  
Lottier, Stuart, 7640 Oakland Ave., Detroit, Mich.  
Lucas, Grace D., 1497 South Washington Ave., Saginaw, Mich.  
Neville, Walter Curtis, Weber College, Ogden, Utah  
Redden, Elizabeth A., Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.  
Rubin, Arthur L. H., Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago, Chicago  
Sauter, Mary C., 921 A Ave., Coronado, Calif.  
Sensing, Ruby Mae, 5730 Blackstone Ave., Chicago  
Shaffer, G. Louise, State Normal School, Frostburg, Md.  
Sherman, Mandel, 5749 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago  
Siu, Paul C. P., International House, University of Chicago, Chicago  
Spencer, Eloise E., Y.W.C.A., Youngstown, Ohio  
Tomars, Adolph S., 144 West Seventy-second St., New York City  
Weinfeld, William, Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.  
Williams, Phyllis H. (Mrs.), R.F.D. No. 1, Wallingford, Conn.

*Institute of Educational Psychology.*—The Institute of Educational Psychology in France offers a series of special lectures and seminars for Americans to be held in Paris during the fall and winter months, 1933-34. Dr. Otto Rank will be the principal speaker and will conduct the advanced

lectures and conferences. For further information apply to Dr. Pearce Bailey, 320 East Seventy-second Street, New York City.

*Journal of Educational Sociology.*—The September issue is devoted entirely to the report of the section meeting on the teaching of sociology at the 1932 meeting of the American Sociological Society. The recommendations of the committee setting forth a proposed general outline for the introductory course in sociology is presented in its entirety.

*Purnell Conference.*—The Fourth Purnell Conference of Research Workers in Rural Sociology will be held in Philadelphia, December 26-28, 1933. The program will center about the place of rural sociology in a program of research in land utilization, research in the field of rural youth, and statistical technique.

*University of Buffalo.*—Professor Nathaniel Cantor has returned from a year's leave of absence on a Social Science Research Council Fellowship. During this time he made a study of penal institutions in Germany and Italy.

*University of Chicago.*—Dr. Robert E. Park returned in August from an absence of two years from the University. During that time he has been engaged in a study of race relations in Hawaii, China, India, South Africa, and South America. He will devote his attention during the Autumn Quarter to assembling his materials.

Dr. Ernest W. Burgess has returned from a trip during the summer to Russia. His time was spent largely in Moscow, in study of methods of research in Soviet institutes of criminology.

Frederick Starr, associate professor emeritus of anthropology, died in Tokyo, Japan, on August 13, 1933. Professor Starr was a member of the original faculty at the University of Chicago, beginning his work on October 1, 1892. He retired from active teaching at the age of sixty-five in 1923, after which he made his home in Seattle, Washington, in a bungalow presented to him by his former students and from which he went out each year to Japan and to the Orient to continue his study of ancient civilizations. During the more than thirty years that Professor Starr was connected with the University of Chicago he was a member of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology under the chairmanship of Albion W. Small. Upon Professor Starr's retirement Professor Fay-Cooper Cole, anthropologist at the Field Museum, was appointed to the chair of anthropology. In 1928 the work in anthropology had developed to such proportions that a separate department was created.

During the tenure of Professor Starr he was the only representative of anthropology, and his scholarship and personality made him a notable figure in the University. His field work in ethnology included expeditions to Mexico, Japan, the Belgian Congo, the Philippine Islands, Korea, and Liberia. He was the author of eleven books and monographs and the editor of the "Anthropology Series."

Professor Starr was the recipient of numerous foreign honors, including the museum's medal from Holland in 1900; Officer of the Order of Leopold II, Belgium; Officer of Public Instruction in France; Chevalier Order of the Crown of Italy; Knight Commander of the Order of African Redemption, Liberia; and Order of the Sacred Treasury from Japan.

Professor Starr's reputation as an anthropologist and author established him as a scholar of high rank, but he was best known in the University for his striking and unique personality. His keen mind, his incisive wit, and his genius for friendship made him the source of many a campus myth. Unmarried, his bachelor quarters were the center where gathered a group of his students to whom he was attached by the strongest ties of friendship. His chief enthusiasm was Japan, although his interest in Liberia was also intense. To the last he kept a list of every Liberian in the United States to whom on New Year's Day he sent a specially printed card of greeting and encouragement. He had small interest in co-operating with his academic colleagues and will be best remembered as an individual worker and a picturesque personality.

*Elmhurst College.*—Professor T. W. Mueller has been appointed dean. Professor W. P. Carter, formerly of the department of sociology of Colgate University, has been appointed to the faculty to give work in sociology.

*Harvard University.*—Professor Howard W. Becker of Smith College gave courses in sociology during the summer session.

*University of Missouri.*—Professor L. Guy Brown, who gave courses in the summer school, has been appointed to give work in the department of rural sociology and to conduct research in rural and community organization during the coming year. Professor Walter Burr has resigned as state director of unemployment relief and has entered the unemployment service in Washington.

*University of Oregon.*—Professor John H. Mueller has returned from a three months' trip to Europe where he was engaged in study in Germany and Russia.



*Pennsylvania State College.*—Dr. Willard W. Waller has been promoted from the position of associate professor of sociology to the position of professor of sociology. Dr. Joseph S. Roucek has resigned from his position of professor of the social sciences at the Centenary Collegiate Institute, Hackettstown, New Jersey, in order to become visiting professor of sociology at the Pennsylvania State College.

*University of Southern California.*—Dr. Bessie A. McClenahan, professor of sociology at the University of Southern California, is the author of a paper entitled "Leadership and Personality in Relation to the Modern Community," delivered at the Eleventh Congress of the Institut International de Sociologie held in Geneva, October 16-22, 1933.

*William Jewell College.*—Dr. Cloice R. Howd, head of the department of sociology and economics, was killed in an automobile accident in May. Professor William C. Smith, for the last four years head of the department of sociology in Texas Christian University, has been appointed to fill this vacancy.

*University of Wisconsin.*—Dr. E. L. Kirkpatrick has been appointed to the staff of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration where he will serve as a rural relief analyst and adviser in rural relief problems.

*Yale University.*—Professor Dorothy Thomas was on leave of absence during the second semester and gave lectures in sociology in the Social Science Research Institute in Stockholm. During the spring and summer she carried on special research in the mobility and movement of population of eleven Swedish villages.

#### PERSONAL NOTE

Mr. Ferris-Laune has been appointed by the governor of the state of Illinois as sociologist and actuary for the Parole Board, with C. C. van Vechten and Sam Daykin as assistants. Their duties will be to provide the Parole Board with the data bearing upon the advisability of parole of men in all Illinois institutions. Among the data assembled for use by the Board will be expectancy tables of probabilities of success and failure on parole, based chiefly on Burgess' and Tibbitts' system of parole prediction. This is the first attempt to put into practice the method of scientific parole prediction which now has a considerable literature of research by Burgess, the Gluecks, Hart, Tibbitts, Vold, and others.

Dr. W. I. Thomas spent the summer in Sweden where he continued his research in community organization.

## BOOK REVIEWS

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*Social Statistics*. By R. CLYDE WHITE. New York: Harper & Bros., 1933. Pp. x+471. \$4.00.

*Methods of Statistical Analysis in the Social Sciences*. By GEORGE R. DAVIES and WALTER F. CROWDER. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1933. Pp. vii+355. \$3.25.

The author of a textbook in statistics which would be suitable for sociologists is in a difficult spot. The range and limitations of the applicability to sociology of all but the simple statistical tools are still under exploration. Quetelet was a contemporary of Comte, yet the number of sociologists today who are also critical statisticians is small. Years of patient trial and error lie ahead before a sociologist can trust statistical formulas, not knowing their mathematics, as securely as he can trust an adding machine, not knowing its internal mechanics.

Hence a textbook writer's dilemma. If he presents only the simplest statistical procedures, he risks giving the student the little learning which is a dangerous thing. The crimes committed elsewhere in the name of the simple correlation coefficient and the probable error have been less frequent in sociology only because so few sociologists have been using statistics. On the other hand, if the author introduces the student to the disconcerting variety of more needed techniques, whose merits and limitations have not yet been adequately tested in sociology and whose differences, often fundamental, can be appreciated only by a student with some facility in college mathematics, he risks pedagogical defeat, and he certainly will be charged with the offense of trying to teach a student to run before he has learned to walk. The two new statistics textbooks here reviewed do their best to play safe.

White's *Social Statistics* presents the elementary methods lucidly and cautiously. In the hands of a teacher who supplements the text with constant reminders of its limited range of applicability and who gives his elementary students at least a glimpse into the dubieties of advanced techniques much more necessary in the disentangling of sociological complexities, White's volume should do useful service. Designed primarily for sociologists and social workers, *Social Statistics* fills a place not quite covered by any standard text. Its most valuable achievement is its criti-

cal and up-to-date treatment of sources of social statistics and its use of sociological data for illustrations and laboratory exercises. Brief introductory chapters on vital statistics and rating scales are included. The correlation of time series is competently presented; otherwise, partial correlation and multiple correlation are omitted. Methods of handling qualitative data, so vital to sociological research, are untouched (except in so far as the qualitative data can be reduced to ranks or measurements on a rating scale). The all-important problems of sampling and tests of significance are skimmed in a twenty-five-page chapter called "The Theory of Probability," which neglects most of the new and, in some respects, revolutionary developments of the past decade, and which makes some debatable categorical statements, as in its definition of the probable error of the mean.

Davies and Crowder's *Methods of Statistical Analysis* also is of interest to sociologists, since one of the authors collaborated in a pioneer textbook in sociology which introduces elementary statistical methods and even a table of logarithms. Little is said by Davies and Crowder specifically on the subject of gathering data, "for the reason that the process can be learned only by practice in a given applied field." The book possibly will be more valuable to students of commerce and economics than to students of sociology. The chapters on index numbers, curve fitting, and the treatment of time series (occupying about a third of the text) are particularly complete and helpful. Partial and multiple correlation are briefly illustrated and mathematical proofs supplied. Methods of treating qualitative data are not discussed, and the subject of sampling and tests of significance is dismissed briefly, though recognition is given to some of the new work in the field. Numerical examples, largely taken from commerce and economics, generally are presented so clearly and fully that the student should have a minimum of trouble in learning the mechanics of computation.

SAMUEL A. STOFFER

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

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*Immigration: Cultural Conflicts and Social Adjustments.* By LAWRENCE GUY BROWN. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1933. Pp. 419. \$3.00.

The intense period of writing about the immigrant is passed and with the relative ceasing of immigration it seems almost unnecessary to write more books about it. This book, however, deals with the subject both as a

clarifying example of sociological processes and as a continuing dynamic factor in American cultural life. It omits the ephemeral immigration and nationalization laws, and techniques for dealing with immigrant groups for which there was recently a demand.

The first chapter on "Immigration and Human Nature," though it might better have been "The Immigrant and Human Nature," is an excellent one, and furnishes the foundation on which the rest of the book is built. There is the appropriate historical description, for immigration is an integral part of the history of the United States. The controversial "New Immigration" is differentiated, not because its material is inherently different but because it has vivid outlines. The chapters on the Chinese and Japanese are especially good. There is a good bibliography with each chapter and carefully prepared subjects for class report, and questions for discussion.

The book does not represent discovery in the field of immigration, but it does offer the best interpretation yet made of the process and problems brought to America by immigration, whose laws underly all cultural relationships.

HERBERT A. MILLER

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

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*Population Trends in the United States.* By WARREN S. THOMPSON and P. K. WHELPTON. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. x+415. \$4.00.

This volume is one of the "Recent Social Trends Monographs" prepared under the direction of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends. Like other monographs in the series, it is in major part restricted to the presentation of quantitative factual material. It has, therefore, something of both the virtues and the vices that the standpoint imposes. But in the present case the restriction of the scope of investigation to "objective data" has not seriously handicapped the research. The objective data of population growth and change can in very large part be stated in statistical terms.

The monograph is a careful and highly competent report and gives a reasonably adequate picture of the quantitative aspects of population in the United States. Recognizing that population trends are phenomena of long duration, the authors have traced trends over several decades, in some cases over the whole period of American settlement, and have projected past and present trends into the future. The monograph covers the

growth of population in the United States; the geographic, age, sex, and marital distribution; the national origins of the white population; the trend of birth- and death-rates; and the contributions of immigration and natural increase to the growth in numbers. The monograph closes with two brief chapters, one on the probable slow growth in the immediate future and the social consequences of the retarded rate of increase, one on the question of population policy. The volume is a major contribution to population research. It is deserving of wide distribution and careful study.

E. B. REUTER

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

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*Problems of Education in the United States.* By CHARLES H. JUDD.

New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. xi+208. \$2.50.

The purpose of this monograph is to reveal, through the presentation of selected details, significant problems that arise in a social system which is undergoing rapid evolution. The author has selected typical and urgent problems in a number of different fields of educational activity and endeavors to give a fairly complete analysis of the problems selected. He has, therefore, not attempted to canvass all the problems of American education. This procedure has been made necessary because of certain limitations. Therefore the presentation should be judged by the adequacy of the treatment within the limitation imposed by the necessity of the situation. The topics selected for discussion are as follow: "The New Status of Children in the United States," "Inco-Ordination of Administrative Units," "Problems of Instruction," "Problems of School Administration," "Problems of Finance," "Education for Adults," "Scientific Studies of Education."

The list as here presented indicates significant omissions as viewed from the standpoint of the sociologist. The author has omitted the whole recent movement concerned with problem children, involving the visiting teacher as a factor in the school, and other developments which seek to take into account the social backgrounds of the school child in the development of his personality.

These omissions represent phases of education vitally important and of most interest to the sociologist. They are significant since a variety of situations outside of the school and formal education must be taken into account, i.e., the educational effect of the environmental influences. Recent researches and emphases in this direction should not be omitted from

a discussion of "Recent Trends in Public School Education in the United States."

The sociologist does, however, welcome this monograph since it approaches education from the point of view of its social importance. The whole development of education in the twentieth century, in so far as it has attempted to apply scientific methods, has been to emphasize the psychological nature of the child and the adjustment of the school curricula to his psychological needs. To be sure, the philosopher has stressed the importance of the school as a social institution but has applied no scientific techniques in this emphasis. Therefore the recent tendency of educators to take account of sociological factors and to be aware that they must be approached in the same scientific spirit that has been manifest in the development of scientific studies of the child and curriculum is highly important.

The author has been logical and consistent in giving this emphasis in the selection that he has made for presentation in the volume under review. It, therefore, so far as it goes, represents an adequate and effective presentation of recent social trends of public education in the United States.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

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*Human Geography of the South: A Study in Regional Resources and Human Adequacy.* By RUPERT B. VANCE. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1932. Pp. xiv+596. \$4.00.

This analysis of the physical aspects of the South and their bearing upon its cultural development stands out as a notable achievement in the literature of regional studies. The author, who is an able member of the Institute for Research in Social Science at the University of North Carolina, made his first contribution in this field through his book, *Human Factors in Cotton Culture*, published in 1929. In the present volume, Dr. Vance has extended his study to cover the entire southern region and has essayed the difficult task of presenting what he calls a "synthetic treatment of the interaction of men and nature in the American South." As the title indicates, the book is concerned primarily with geographical factors, although it is much more than a treatise in economic and human geography. The mass of geographical data brought together from many sources forms an appropriate setting and basis for the author's analysis of

the southern situation and his suggestions for the reconstruction of the various physical regions found in the southern states.

Students of human ecology and social demography will find this volume extremely useful. The discussion of the concept of the region, the variations in the southern population patterns, the detailed comparisons of the different regions in the South, and the relation of climate to human adequacy stand out as portions of the book that will be read with great interest. The bibliography of 67 pages adds greatly to the value of the book.

This excursion by a sociologist into the field of geography is not likely to be favorably received by geographers who naturally prefer to set forth their own materials. In one of their journals it has already been characterized as "a book of excellent deserts had it not attempted to be a geography." For the sociologist, however, it is a valuable contribution to an understanding of the South and clears the ground for the writing of a regional sociology of that section of the country.

J. F. STEINER

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

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*Chicago Families: A Study of Unpublished Census Data.* By DAY MONROE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xxi + 344. \$3.00.

One does not read a book of this sort any more than one would read a Census volume or a dictionary, but as a source book for family data in an urban community it is a necessary part of the equipment of social workers as well as specialists in the family or the city. As the subtitle indicates the study consists of a tabulation of certain of the data from the 1920 Census household schedules which were not given in the regular Census publications. The tabulations were done for a sample of 23,373 families obtained by taking every thirtieth household schedule. Negro families were excluded and no household was regarded as a family unless the two or more members were married or were related as parent and child. Thus the sample is one of "natural" families rather than of the households used by the Census. Certain test comparisons with the total Census figures indicate that the random sample is quite representative.

The findings are classified under the following headings: (1) general characteristics, (2) households, (3) domicile status, (4) size and composition, (5) the income of the wife and support of dependent children, (6) gainful employment of members, (7) earning home-makers.

In the determination of bases for estimating minimum standards of living are the findings on the size of families, the length of time families of different sizes are burdened with the support of young children, and the number of breadwinners in different classes of families at different stages in the life of these families.

It is something of a disappointment that the author did not attempt some use of correlational technique. The summary chapter gives a good perspective and enables one to refer to special tables without having to go through the text, which gets quite dry and monotonous at times.

LEONARD S. COTTRELL, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Man and Civilization.* By JOHN STORCK. Third Revised Edition. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1927. Pp. v+449.

*Modern Scientific Knowledge.* By FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND. New York: Ronald Press, 1929. Pp. xvii+592. \$4.50.

A proper perspective, sadly needed in the elaborate confusion of the modern world, is the keynote of these orientation volumes. Both are concerned with simplifying and ordering larger areas of modern knowledge. The range of inclusiveness is different, Mr. Storck limiting his treatment to the disciplines of psychology, anthropology, and sociology, Mr. Cleveland covering all major fields of scientific knowledge. Mr. Storck's volume is more highly unified, being his own product as the single author. Mr. Cleveland served primarily as editor, using fourteen collaborators in the preparation of various chapters.

*Man and Civilization* has been used as required reading in the course in contemporary civilization in Columbia College. It introduces the reader to the biological basis of human nature, and to the nature of his social environment; it traces the course of human psychological development from infancy to maturity; it analyzes the social nature and functions of routines, tools, language, values, and opinions; and describes and interprets our contemporary economic, domestic, artistic, scientific, and religious ways of life. The treatment is simple and non-technical but is fundamental rather than superficial. Bibliographies are carefully selected, including only sources which have a high degree of the author's approval.

*Modern Scientific Knowledge* suffers somewhat as a result of its extreme inclusiveness, but for the ordinary, non-technical reader it is a valuable, simplified statement of important problems and points of view. Bernard,



in social psychology, and Groves in the field of culture are the sociological contributors. A unique and valuable feature of the book is a historical survey of points of view which once were set forth as valid. The contrast between many of these early notions and modern scientific knowledge is illuminating. Bibliographies are detailed.

JAMES A. QUINN

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

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*Small Loan Legislation.* By DAVID J. GALLERT, WALTER S. HILBORN, and GEOFFREY MAY. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1932. Pp. 255. \$3.00.

The effort of Messrs. Gallert, Hilborn, and May in portraying the background and development of a portion of small-loan legislation, with particular emphasis upon the work of the Russell Sage Foundation, is very thoughtful, as it is positive, but is singularly incurious as to the history of the field of small loans and the problems, legislative and otherwise, which confront it. As the work is concerned with something more than a tabulation of the present legal situation, a reader not fully informed might be very much misled by it, although he could find in it some value as a history of a past which is, however, past. The basic necessity today in the study of this class of legislation and its field is concerned with the purposes of loans, for how else can legislation be intelligently considered? In increasing proportion these loans can less and less be described as remedial.

The considerable development of the Morris Plan type of banking is barely touched upon, and yet this type of banking has already been incorporated in the machinery of some of the largest banks of the country and recently (and it is not the fault of the authors that they have not mentioned this, because it has occurred since publication) have been made eligible for membership in the Federal Reserve System.

If the authors were concerned only in legislation they would have found considerable necessity for study both as to statute and court decision here. Above all, the authors have followed the lead of the Russell Sage Foundation in lack of ability to recognize and appreciate a development to which the introductory portions of their book should commit them; and that is the fact that everywhere, and particularly in the field of the 3.5 per cent a month loaners, with whose problems they are particularly obsessed, so much capital has been invited into the field that all the difficulties and shortcomings of other businesses, during the period of imitation and now, have developed, with the addition of special ones.

The 3.5 per cent a month loan by its terms is limited to \$300, and yet wherever examination has been made it has been found that by one device or another simultaneous duplication in an alarming proportion of the total is permitted and even encouraged. Cases have developed where ten such loans have been found to exist simultaneously. The fact that the loan is advertised at 3.5 per cent a month rather than 42 per cent a year would indicate—and certainly this is the viewpoint of social students—that the loan should not prevail for a long period of time. And yet there have been heavy advertising campaigns advertising loans for thirty months, and there has grown to be a somewhat standardized practice in making these loans for twenty months, supported by advertising urging people to buy bargains. The mere statement of this proposition is enough to indicate not only that the loans are not remedial, but that they are in increasing proportion socially and economically harmful. Any reasonably thoughtful man on the street who looks at the volume of advertising, who listens to the radio and hears the hired propagandists, can get a clear picture of this situation.

The competent student concerned with small-loan legislation would be compelled to make some inquiry into the heavy costs for the procurement of business, the heavy overhead of overexpanded organization, and the cost of financing, including stock exchange operation. The necessary costs of one of the most powerful lobbies in the United States would also be of significance. Legislation must take cognizance of realities. These inquiries should not be unsympathetic, for there are essential problems in the business. But they are demanded in any consideration of small-loan legislation. Such inquiries would not be fruitful except as a proportion were made in other fields of small loans.

The time for such a book as the above, despite the respect one must feel for its authors, is past, and the book is obsolete, just as the overdevotion of the Russell Sage Foundation to a formula needs re-examination.

WILLOUGHBY G. WALLING

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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*The United States Employment Service.* By RUTH M. KELLOGG.

Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv + 192. \$1.00.

Do not read this book unless you wish to become angry. My advice is addressed to social scientists who believe in public responsibility for the organization of the labor market, and who expect from the government of the United States honest and efficient standards in the administration of

social services. Miss Kellogg's study will not disturb faith in the possibility of such organization and such standards, but her work will completely disillusion anyone who accepted at face value the promises of Secretary of Labor Doak to reorganize effectively the federal employment service following President Hoover's veto of the Wagner bill, and who believed in his department's claims of accomplishment by the service.

The Wagner bill, designed to create a permanent federal-state system of public employment offices, was first introduced as the Kenyon-Nolan bill in 1919, when the federal employment service created hurriedly during the war had been reduced almost to the vanishing-point. It had the well-nigh unanimous endorsement of informed and competent opinion. Mr. Doak himself was among those actively participating in the original drafting. After twelve years of untiring effort by its proponents it finally passed both houses of Congress and went to the President early in 1931.

A substitute bill hastily put forward by Secretary Doak had suffered "overwhelming defeat" in the House. The President took action on the Wagner measure three days after Congress had adjourned. "In spite of the sanction given this bill and its predecessors, in face of the complete rejection of the Doak 'substitute' bill, the urgent letters and memoranda sent to the President, even in spite of the attitude expressed by the President's Unemployment Conference in 1921, of which Mr. Hoover himself was chairman, and contrary to the advice of his own Emergency Commission for Employment, he saw fit to veto the measure." At once the reorganization of the existing Federal Employment Service, solicitude for which had been a major consideration advanced in the veto message, was announced from Washington. This was made possible by an emergency appropriation of \$500,000, previously made available with the support of Senator Wagner. An account of the brief but scandalous history of this "reorganized" service between April 18, 1931, and the end of the Hoover administration is presented by the author.

The picture drawn is one of incredible ineptitude. The chief and almost exclusive end of the service appears to have been political, but the type of politics represented was scarcely even intelligent. The service was "reorganized" in the first place with a vision limited and faulty, staffed on the whole with men and women inexperienced in the work to be done, subject to political manipulation, inadequately supervised and supplied with record forms quite out of keeping with those sanctioned by trained personnel." Trained men in the service were forced out. Incompetents were installed. Offices were established according to political exigencies in communities already provided with adequate state and

municipal employment bureaus while larger communities, where real needs for service existed, were neglected. Instead of supplementing and co-ordinating the existing state, municipal, and non-official employment exchanges, the federal service, where it functioned at all, was merely another competitor.

The annual report of the Secretary of Labor claimed for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932, that "the United States Employment Service and its co-operative offices found jobs for a total of 2,174,174 men and women." The number attributable to the federal offices alone was not segregated, but the grossest padding is indicated. When Francis I. Jones, director-general of the Employment Service for the preceding ten years, was forced to resign by Secretary Doak on September 1, 1931, "Mr. Jones charged that the reorganized Service was 'ineffective, unsatisfactory and bitterly disappointing' and that it 'had obtained jobs for only forty-six men since its reorganization.' " At least some of the figures of placements arising from the American Legion's campaign for one million jobs during the spring of 1932 were included. And although "the Legion did find jobs, mostly short-time, for a considerable number of men, yet there is evidence that some of these placement reports were inflated beyond all recognition of reality." Thus in one city, of 253 jobs for which credit was taken by the Legion, 98 were "without foundation." "One hundred fifty-five men were given jobs but the majority last from 2 to 4 hours. The amount earned scarcely paid for the men's carfare and lunch"—according to the supervisor of the municipal relief bureau. Again, "the following practice was said to be rather common in some offices: An office hears that a certain firm has added a number of persons to its payroll; a staff member goes over, gets the names of these workers, writes them down and then gives the employment office credit for these placements."

All men employed on federal highway relief work were included in his reports by one state director since "it's all done with Federal money so why shouldn't the Federal employment service get the credit?" Such incidents seem not to have been untypical.

Co-operation with state and municipal employment services was not only unsought; it seems to have been discountenanced. In one midwestern state, "the director and the state department of labor worked out a plan for co-operation which they believed would be mutually helpful. In August, 1931, Washington instructed the state director to cease such co-operation and to destroy all records and reports pertaining to this matter." Yet constructive supervision from Washington was almost non-existent. Local officials or groups were seldom consulted previous to the establishment of a federal employment office.

The effect of this volume on the mind of the reader is not unlike that produced by reading Gaston Means' account of "the strange death of President Harding," or *Rasputin, the Holy Devil*. He finds himself asking "How could such things occur in my day, in an age of assumed enlightenment?" But at least they will occur no longer. The Wagner bill is at last law. A capable and socially minded Secretary of Labor is instituting a *real* organization of the Federal Employment Service with energy, intelligence, and firm determination that it shall be of constructive service to labor and industry. Miss Kellogg has ably recorded a black page of political, economic, and social events in our recent national past that now, fortunately, is history.

STUART A. RICE

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

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*Prediction Factors in Probation.* By ELIO D. MONACHESI. Hanover, N.H.: Sociological Press, 1932. Pp. xvi+117.

*Presentation of Crime in Newspapers.* By FRANK HARRIS. Hanover, N.H.: Sociological Press, 1932. Pp. xvi+103.

Dr. Monachesi's thesis is an application of the conventional Burgessian method of predicting outcome of correctional treatment to 896 juvenile and 619 adult probationers in Ramsey County, Minnesota. The results and conclusions differ little from those of previous reports. While the study is well done and much better written than the average, the author has reacted to criticisms of previous studies with far too little enthusiasm. Most of the questions of reliability, significance, duplicating factors, and weighting are raised, but no contribution is made to their solution.

Proceeding from the belief that newspaper content reflects the interest of the reader, Dr. Harris attempts to discover changing interest in crime by comparing the amount and type of crime news in Minneapolis papers with the volume and kinds of crime represented in court statistics. Newspapers and crime reports were compared for the years 1890, 1904-5, and 1921. The conclusions are that crime news like other news is presented more sensationally now than in 1890, but that if there has been any change in the proportion of space given to crime it has been a decline. Murder and robbery are given more space than numerical incidence justifies. Crimes committed outside of local court jurisdiction receive an approximately uniform proportion of space over a period of time, but local crimes tend to follow the crime market and are given more prominent space in the papers. Dr. Harris has manipulated his data with noteworthy caution, but like

many neophytes attempting to present quantitative material, he frequently loses the reader in detail. He has not mastered simplicity of expression so eminently desirable in any exposition.

CLARK TIBBITTS

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

*Inleiding Tot de Criminologie.* By W. A. BONGER. Haarlem: Erven F. Bohn, 1932. Pp. vii+236. Fl. 1.90.

In the Anglo-Saxon world the work of Professor Bonger on *Criminality and Economic Conditions* is well known. In this main work Mr. Bonger outlines his theory about the close relation between the economic system and the criminality of a society. As a Marxist he considers this relation to be of a causal nature.

In his *Introduction to Criminology* no special preference is given to any special theory of crime, though the greatest sympathy is shown, as could be expected, for the milieu theory. Professor Bonger treats in his volume the history of pre-criminology and the several different schools of criminology of the past and present. He also gives a short outline of criminal psychology and of criminology as applied science. His book will prove of value for those who wish to acquire a general knowledge of this branch of science.

It may be added that this first acquaintance with criminology may not be too encouraging. The results seem somewhat meager, and one might be inclined to believe that a more philosophical attitude would produce greater results.

B. LANDHEER

ROTTERDAM, HOLLAND

*Statistical Procedure of Public Employment Offices.* By ANNABEL M. and BRYCE M. STEWART. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1933. Pp. 327. \$2.50.

The report is divided into three principal parts: (1) analysis of statistical procedure as related to the four main headings: openings, applications for employment, referrals, and placements; (2) survey of such procedure in Great Britain, Switzerland, Sweden, Canada, Germany, France, and the United States; (3) suggested plan for the public employment offices in the United States. A brief history of the development of such offices precedes the statistical analysis for each country.

As stated in the Foreword, this study is primarily practical in its origin and purpose and in the sources of its information. It is the outgrowth of work undertaken by the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association at the request of the International Association of Public Employment Services in 1929. It was designed not only for the purpose of gathering accurate information as to existing statistical methods but also to make possible the application of both European and American experience in developing an improved and uniform system for the United States. Its publication comes at a particularly opportune time in view of the recent passage of the Wagner Bill for the establishment of a national-state system of public employment offices.

RUTH M. KELLOGG

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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*Il metodo statistico: Teoria e applicazioni alle scienze naturali, alle scienze sociali, all'arte.* Nuova edizione ampliata. By ALFREDO NICEFORO. Mezzina: Casa Editrice Giuseppe Principato, 1931. Pp. 815. L. 75.

The work of this author has attracted the attention of American statisticians primarily because of the examples which it employs. Statistical methods are employed in analyzing data of what seem unusual types, a characteristic at least partially suggested by the title. The temperature of the human body at various hours of the day, the numbers of suicides and the numbers of celebrated events in different months of the year, the lengths of the odes of Horace, distributed by strophes, as well as a great deal of biometrical data of Lombrosian type, are illustrations. The statistical procedures used are mostly familiar. Far from disparaging the employment of statistics in such fields, the reviewer would contend that unforeseen utilizations of very practical kind may here and there result from such statistical applications. Thus, Herbert O. Yardley in *The American Black Chamber* describes the war-time development of methods of deciphering coded messages for the American government, employing essentially statistical processes. Niceforo's statistical studies of language differences would be of very practical value in such work, while even art, as his studies suggest, may sometime yield secrets to statistical inquiry.

STUART A. RICE

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

*The Arts in American Life.* By FREDERICK P. KEPPEL and R. L. DUFFUS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. 227.

Former President Hoover in 1929 appointed a President's Research Committee on Social Trends. *The Arts in American Life* is one of a series of monographs published in connection with this investigation. If one has been out of touch with the world about him for the past few years, this report will doubtless be of some interest. It will also be of value to the specialist and the organizer who desires to raise money for art education. One may learn about the progress of art in the schools and colleges, about modern architecture, including the Wright houses, Rockefeller Center, and the "aluminaire" house, about expressionism in painting and sculpture, and the value of the new movement in these fields and in music. There is also a survey of the influence of art in industry, in daily life, in the theater and cinema, and in advertising. The investigation is thorough, even the aesthetic arrangement of the modern bathroom is touched upon, and if one likes statistics, there is information on the sale of pianos and phonographs, the increase in the production of artists' materials, etc.

HERBERT S. LANGFELD

PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY

*L'envie: son rôle sociale.* By EUGENE RAIGA. Paris: Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. xv+268. Fr. 15.

This is a literary analysis, supplemented by a considerable amount of concrete observation of cases, which, however, are not formally and analytically presented. The cases are illustrative of the general analysis. Envy is compared with the other sentiments, such as jealousy, rivalry, indignation, etc. The chief sociological contribution of the book is in the several chapters devoted to the operation of envy in groups, e.g., in the family, among friends, in the army, among authors, in professional relations, such as among lawyers, physicians, and actors, and even in modern democratic political relationships. Rivalries within the church and in international relationships come in for considerable discussion. The author does not find all of the social effects of envy bad, however disturbing it may be personally.

L. L. BERNARD

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY



*Responsibility.* By LAURENCE SEARS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1932. Pp. ix+198.

The ethical theories of Bentham, Mill, Bain, Westermarck, Green, Bradley, and Dewey are confronted with a set of twelve case studies of children whose behavior difficulties constituted a problem. The Dewey solution emerges victorious when, after punishment by parents and teachers only created more problems, the treatment of giving the patients responsibility was used. Given the habit of accepting responsibility, i.e., the use of intelligence in understanding the social environment, the children showed apparent improvement. Traits which are sometimes believed to be fixed in the character underwent sudden change.

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

BROWN UNIVERSITY

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*Social Work Year Book, 1933.* Edited by FRED S. HALL. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1933. Pp. 680.

This invaluable book of reference now appears in its second issue, the first having been published under the same senior editorship in 1930 for the year 1929. Appraisal will naturally take the form of comparison with the earlier volume.

The book, as before, is in two parts, the first consisting of topical articles concerning organized activities dealing with social work or related thereto. No attempt is made to define social work, and "forms of work are regarded as related if those engaged in them are significantly associated with social workers, either locally or nationally. On this ground enterprises such as business men's service clubs are included . . . while those having to do with peace, temperance, prohibition, and the conservation of natural resources are not included." The articles, in general, are concise, informative, well supported by brief and carefully selected references to literature, and of such a nature as to provide the non-specialist in any given field with immediate orientation regarding it. The list of contributors is imposing and represents an assembly of interpreters which could scarcely be surpassed.

While the volume is designed for "an audience composed chiefly of persons on the fringe of social work proper or just entering it," this characterization applies primarily to Part I. In Part II is contained a directory of agencies which no social work administrator, at least, can scarcely afford to be without. The classified list of national agencies in the 1929 edition

has been replaced by a General Index which seems to serve the same purpose in a much more effective manner, since it will often save at least one step in the search for a given item. The space devoted to the descriptive directory of national agencies has been reduced to smaller compass by careful editing, a change of type which is much more deferential to the reader's eyes, and a reduction in the number of agencies itemized from 455 to 387. At the same time a corresponding section devoted to descriptions of 449 state public agencies is newly introduced. This is the single most useful addition to the book. The net effect upon the size of the volume is a lengthening by eighty pages.

STUART A. RICE

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

*Insuring the Essentials.* By BARBARA N. ARMSTRONG. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. 717. \$5.00.

There was need for such a volume as this which would summarize clearly and in a reliable fashion the steps taken by various governments in establishing minimum wages and providing insurance against industrial accidents, sickness, old age, death, and unemployment. Mrs. Armstrong has done her work well. She has gone back to original sources on all these matters and has shown not only the conditions which led to the passage of these laws but the experience under them and the further problems which have necessarily arisen. Her book is a credit to American scholarship and should prove extremely valuable not only to the research worker, the legislator, and the administrator but also as a textbook for classes in labor legislation. It is at once voluminous and complete, well written and interesting.

PAUL H. DOUGLAS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Hours of Labor.* By LAZARE TEPER. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1932. Pp. 92. \$1.00.

*Shorter Hours: A Study of the Movement since the Civil War.* By MARION COTTER CAHILL. New York: Columbia University Press, 1932. Pp. 300. \$4.50.

These two workman-like studies of the movement toward shorter hours admirably complement each other. Dr. Teper's book is a statistical examination of the actual degree to which hours have been reduced and

of the relations between hours on the one hand and wages and the sex composition of industry on the other. Dr. Cahill's study discusses the social causes which have led to shorter hours and in particular the part played by legislation, direct economic action by the unions, and more or less voluntary reductions by employers.

In his historical study, Dr. Teper's results are almost identical with those which this reviewer has worked out, namely, that the average decrease between the nineties and 1928 was approximately 15 per cent. Relative decreases have on the whole been least in those industries where the hours of work were originally low.

Dr. Teper also examined wage and hour data for North Carolina establishments and found, as might be expected, that there was a negative correlation between these two variables.

Dr. Cahill's study is historical rather than statistical in nature. It reviews the activities of the National Labor Union, the Knights of Labor, and the American Federation of Labor on behalf of shorter hours and shows how with the dominance of the latter organization the emphasis was more and more shifted from legislation to trade-union action. The opposition of organized employees is described and a compact summary given of the progress of laws restricting hours and the evolution of the attitude of the courts toward them. If any criticism is to be offered of the work, it is that Dr. Cahill perhaps does not emphasize sufficiently the way in which high hourly real wages stimulate the workers to desire shorter hours and help labor to obtain them.

PAUL H. DOUGLAS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Profits or Prosperity?* By HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD. New York: Harper & Bros., 1932. Pp. ix + 204. \$2.75.

Professor Fairchild of New York University has been one of the most courageous and outspoken of American academic economists ever since the depression broke upon us. He has published challenging and provocative attacks on orthodox economic theory and the profit system in leading periodicals, especially in *Harper's Magazine*. The latter articles are here brought together with many editorial changes and emendations.

To my mind, the present volume is about the best introduction in our language to the shifting point of view in economic analysis. The old rugged individualism and classical economics are definitely abandoned without going to the other extreme of swallowing socialism or communism hook, line, and sinker.

The adequacy of the profit motive in modern industry is sharply questioned, and the old-line capitalism, which Albion W. Small once characterized as a "combination of lottery and famine," is ruthlessly but convincingly exposed. Emphasis is laid on the necessity of adopting the point of view of the consumer if we are to build a new economy which will withstand both the cupidity of the speculative pirate and the violence of the radical.

Professor Fairchild sees no solution of the depression without the assurance of mass-purchasing power, and the reviewer agrees with him. The book closes with a discussion of social planning, pointing out the superficiality of all planning which does not envisage such far-reaching changes in our socio-economic order as will eliminate the evils which have all but prostrated our economic life.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

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*The Sacco-Vanzetti Case.* By OSMOND K. FRAENKEL. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1932. Pp. xv+550. \$5.00.

It was highly desirable that the celebrated case of Sacco and Vanzetti should receive a thorough and dispassionate analysis in order to put it completely on record as a social and historical exhibit in American life. Professor Frankfurter's courageous little book needs little revision on the events down to the time of its publication—a real tribute to the scholarship and intelligence of the author. But much water has gone under the bridge since that time, including the notorious proceedings of the Lowell Committee and the judicial murder of the accused men.

A group of distinguished New York lawyers decided that the full record of the case should be preserved for posterity. Therefore, they arranged with Henry Holt and Company to publish it in six large volumes, and it has been carefully edited. But this mass of material is too vast for anybody save the expert. Mr. Fraenkel has gone through it with meticulous care and with a fine logical mind. The result is the definitive history of the case with enough documentation to satisfy the most exacting student. The fact that Mr. Fraenkel preserves an almost icy detachment in his analysis gives all the more force to the material which he sets forth.

It is no exaggeration to say that all the allegations of unfairness and prejudice made by the friends of Sacco and Vanzetti are fully and abundantly proved—the savagery of District-Attorney Katzmman, the invincible prejudice of Judge Webster Thayer, the unfairness and near-dishon-

esty of President Lowell in the procedure and hearings of his Committee, the failure of the Massachusetts courts to examine the appeals on their merits, and the absence of one scintilla of valid evidence substantiating the guilt of either Sacco or Vanzetti.

It has often been said that while the case against Mooney and Billings has completely evaporated, at least the guilt of Sacco and Vanzetti might still be a subject for legitimate debate and a matter of reasonable doubt. After reading Mr. Fraenkel's book it will be hard to maintain that there is any more evidence against Sacco and Vanzetti than against the famous California pair.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

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*For Revolution.* By V. F. CALVERTON. New York: John Day Co., 1932. Pp. 26. \$0.25.

George Goetz (V. F. Calverton) is one of the ablest of young American publicists. Probably no other man of equal intellectual rank in the United States is so thoroughgoing a Marxist. The aim of his pamphlet is to show that all opposition to communistic revolution in America is futile—and he means violent revolution. He contends that the capitalist order is in decay and that a social revolution is a necessary therapeutic, or rather surgical, operation. He declares that economic conditions are ripe for a revolution today in America, but that, psychologically, the people are not prepared for one. The masses are not class conscious and have no program. He stresses the revolutionary heritage of the United States and urges the intellectuals to build upon that to create or stimulate the revolution that is coming—the day after tomorrow. His plea is that society can be saved in no other way.

The pamphlet is forceful, but it raises grave doubts in the mind of a sociologist. Are we really seeing the end of capitalism in America? Can economic conditions be ripe for a revolution and the public at the same time not ripe for one? Is a violent, communistic revolution the only way out? Is not a Fascist revolution more natural and more likely? Must not any possible revolution in the United States be based on capitalism and national patriotism? Is not the so-called communistic régime in Russia really state capitalism? Is it not primarily motivated by patriotism?

Goetz is a capable man, but he is young—and impatient. He forgets that the greatest revolution in history—the Industrial Revolution—took place among English-speaking peoples without more violence than a few

insignificant riots. An equally great peaceable revolution may occur again. It probably will, unless there is a very unlikely diminution in the power of public opinion in America.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*Alcohol and Man. The Effects of Alcohol on Man in Health and Disease.* By HAVEN EMERSON (Ed.). New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xi+451. \$3.50.

A timely, readable, and authoritative volume assembling for the educated layman the known facts and probabilities about alcohol in its biological and human relationships. The respective contributors (twenty-two in number) deal only with the phase of the subject on which they have specific information and experience. Each chapter is adequately documented. Among the authors we find such well-known experts as Herman Adler, Adolph Meyer, Joseph L. Miller, Russell Wilder, Charles B. Davenport, and Charles R. Stockard. No less than fourteen physicians contribute to the symposium. This may seem a preponderance of doctors, but biologists and physicians are the ones who study and have the fundamental information concerning the effects of alcohol on the animal organisms in health and disease.

Needless to say, the volume debunks most of the hysterical exaggerations of the "dry" and the "wet" propaganda, past and present. In the midst of this propaganda the following conclusion should act as a cooling breeze on the fevered brow of society: "Experimental and clinical study has hitherto failed to show decisively any direct action of moderate (or therapeutic) amounts of alcohol upon the bodily processes concerned in resistance to infection. No specific protective benefit is conferred by the use of alcohol under any condition, nor is any specific liability to any particular disease imparted."

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Blind in School and Society.* By THOMAS D. CUTSWORTH. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1933. Pp. viii+263. \$2.50.

There are needed in superlative degree studies upon the psychology of the blind, both in the interests of science in general and for the benefit of the particular cause of the blind. A contribution that will be greatly valued and appreciated is that of Dr. Cutsworth, himself a blind man, and a member of the department of psychology of the University of Kansas.

The chief value lies in the circumstance that it largely represents the point of view of a blind man who has thought and studied upon the subject. There is presented an account of the life of a blind child before the imparting of instruction, the effect of words upon a person without sight, the emotional problems resulting from blindness, the difficulties encountered in their education, etc.

It is with respect to the last-named matter that most exception will be taken. Some statements will be hailed as entirely in keeping with the actual situation. No one doubts that all too often principals and instructors in the schools are underpaid or that the charitable touch is too much in evidence. There can be, to some extent at least, indorsement of the view that pupils are placed on exhibition more frequently than should be the case. But how can it be said that in the education of the blind there "have been no pioneers since Howe"? How can it be alleged that heads of schools as a general thing seek to perpetuate the "institutional life," when not a few are doing all they can in just the opposite direction? How can it be claimed that most schools do not try to promote outside contacts for their pupils? Is there any right to refer to the pupils as "caged animals"? In such a matter as the defense of begging by the blind, with its grim humor, we may exercise forgiveness, when the real aim is to set forth the desperate economic condition of the blind. Also, is it the fault of the schools if pupils come to have an exceeding reliance upon their teachers? Should pupils in the days of their youth be made to know all the bitterly hard lot they are later to face economically in the world? The book undoubtedly loses at times by hypercritical statements, by sweeping assertions, and by dogmatic remarks. But even here it provokes and stimulates inquiry into the actual work of the schools, and for that very reason will very likely receive a welcome from them.

But in its general study of the psychology of the blind, and of the effects of blindness upon the individual, together with the discussion of such matters as the importance of voice and of speech with the blind, there has been rendered a most valuable contribution to the work for the blind and a signal service in their behalf.

HARRY BEST

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

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*From Homer to Helen Keller.* By R. S. FRENCH. New York: American Foundation for the Blind, 1932. Pp. xv+298.

Dr. French, who is principal of the California School for the Blind, and lecturer in education at the University of California, has in this work

rendered a genuine service to the cause of the blind. Being rather a new-comer to the special field of education of the blind, he brings a mind familiar with and alive to the progress, actual and potential, in the general field of education; this he applies to the problems inherent in the education of the blind. It is likely that with larger experience with the many practical difficulties found in this special field some of his thrusts will lose not a little of their sharpness. But the cause of the education of the blind gains greatly from what he has done. What he says is in general of the nature of keen, sane, and wholesome criticism. He comes as with the ardor and zeal of a convert to a new faith; there is in his hand a shining sword.

The early part of his work is in considerable part taken from previous writings upon the subject, and, as he tells us, from a new German work by Kretchmer, *Geschichte des Blindenwesens*. This earlier part is given to a full historical account of the development of the instruction of the blind and of means of raised print. This story is told with great interest and appeal. The latter part of his work may be regarded as a cross-sectional criticism of existing work for the blind, especially the work of the schools. Such matters as the general health of pupils, their social education, the question of the charity connection of the schools, vocational provisions, and so on, are discussed with clarity, and with fresh, incisive questioning as to whether the schools are doing all they can, or all that we have a right to expect of them.

HARRY BEST

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

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*Religion and Its Social Setting.* By ABRAHAM CRONBACH. Cincinnati: Social Press, 1933. Pp. xxx+255.

This is not a systematic treatise upon the social setting of religion. It is rather a series of essays, more or less popular in nature, which have appeared at various times in various periodicals. The author is a professor in the Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati. The book deals with the problem of good and evil, the nature of religion, the value of religion, the social elements of religion, and the question whether religion is a flight from reality. Aside from a couple of chapters on Jewish philanthropy, there is little in the book which might not have been written by a modernist in a Christian denomination. Perhaps this points to some convergence of opinions among religious liberals wherever they may be found. However, it might be more just to call some of Professor Cronbach's religious ideas



radical rather than liberal. He cites as authorities such Christian modernists as Ames, Wieman, and Coe, but the philosophy of these essays is rather that of John Dewey with a tincture of Freud. They are suggestive rather than systematic, and it seems to the reviewer that the implied philosophy of religion is very far from clear.

As illustrating the temper of the author we may take his discussion of the God-idea. He tells us that the God-idea is an artistic one, though he does not agree with Freud that religion is a flight from reality. "Religion," he tells us, "coincides with art but it also extends beyond art. It is art *plus* something. . . . That *plus* is a certain survey of life's aims and values. And these aims and values arrange themselves in a certain gradation. . . . Beauty is one of the names for the highest. Hence the identification of religion and beauty." Here the author implies not only an aesthetic theory of religion but also an aesthetic theory of social ethics. The function of the God-idea is not explanation but it is the artistic one of inspiring, and the supreme form of beauty is that which is molded out of our social relations.

If this be true, it is difficult to see how the science of sociology can furnish any rational basis for the criticism of religious and ethical systems.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Rousseau: The Child of Nature.* By JOHN CHARPENTIER. New York: Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, 1931. Pp. 303. \$5.00.

This is a competent biography of the eminent Swiss-French philosopher. It would be improved by the use of a few more dates, just enough more to enable the reader to get the important events into the right year. Also a five-dollar biography might afford at least one engraving of the subject of the book.

Rousseau's masochism, his persecution mania, his literary genius, and his contributions to modern pedagogy have been frequently written up. What concerns the sociologist is his function as the prophet of the French Revolution. This book shows that he runs true to type. He was both a genius and a *poseur*; a philosopher and a charlatan. The author of *Emile, on de l'éducation* abandoned all of his five children one after the other to a foundling asylum where their identity was hopelessly lost. The greatest political philosopher of his age wrote *Le contrat social* without the smallest effort at investigation. It is to be regretted that the chief author of the book is a man who has not yet been able to get beyond the stage of the "artistic" in his own work.

about primitive peoples which was easily accessible to Rousseau. If he had studied it even a little, a man half as able as himself must have felt grave doubts as to the validity of his main thesis. The *Discours sur l'inégalité des conditions* was written by a snob and a bounder, inordinately vain of his acquaintance with the aristocracy he condemned. This propounder of economic doctrines of tremendous importance was a shiftless and thriftless person. In spite of the large sums he made by his writings he was generally out at the elbows. He lived a great part of his life on the charity of his friends. The great advocate of virtue changed his religion more than once for mercenary reasons.

These facts (and others like them) indicate that the intellectual precursors of social revolution are persons closely similar in type to the founders of religious sects. Joseph Smith and Mrs. Eddy are very much counterparts of Rousseau—in an American setting. In the case of a man like Tolstoi the two characters are almost indistinguishable. With leaders of this sort it is curious to observe the adventitious origin of important effects. "The Noble Savage" stems from the fact that Rousseau liked to walk in the woods. Mormon polygamy arose because Joseph Smith was found in bed with a woman other than his wife. Another important characteristic is their power of dramatization. Whether the play-acting is conscious or unconscious, whether the dramatization expresses real conviction or is conscious fraud, seems to make little or no difference in the effect. Modern mass advertising is a social phenomenon of the same order.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*Roger Williams, New England Firebrand.* By JAMES ERNST. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+538. \$5.00.

This is the first biography of Roger Williams which can be considered adequate. It is not written from the sociological point of view. There is no special reason why it should be. Apart from the details of Williams' life, it is mainly concerned with his political and religious doctrines. Williams appears as a shrewd and forceful sectarian leader, both in England and in colonial America—incidentally he was the wealthiest man in New England. There are many quotations from his writings. These give the atmosphere of the time, but their pietistic sententiousness is likely to be-

come a bit tiresome. However, the book is a useful contribution to American history, if not to sociology.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*In Place of Profit: Social Incentives in the Soviet Union.* By HARRY F. WARD. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. Pp. 460+xvi. \$2.50.

Nothing is more important for the establishment of sociology, in either its theoretic or applied aspects, than a clear understanding of the springs of social behavior. The volume in hand makes a very valuable contribution to the knowledge of this matter. The conventional ideas and doctrines concerning motivation and incentive which circulate in Western sociological literature are based primarily upon experience and observation of human conduct in societies organized on an individualistic-capitalistic basis. Even where they are concerned with more primitive peoples, the interpretation is still likely to be colored by this type of society. The conception of "human nature," which we are so often told cannot be changed, is based upon the seemingly stable elements observable in the members of such societies. It is, therefore, of especial significance that Professor Ward should have given us the results of his penetrating and sympathetic study into the characteristic motivation of the Soviet Union.

The author presents not only the philosophy of a society organized upon the conviction that men will work just as hard for social ends as for individual gain, but also the concrete and tangible expressions through which this philosophy reveals itself in the daily behavior of contemporary Russian factory and farm workers. He makes it clear that within the space of a generation "human nature" can be so changed that the well-being and progress of the community elicits the same sort of emotional response, and equally effective productive activity, as the hope of personal profit. Two features are especially noteworthy, first, that the Soviet philosophy does not assume the elimination of selfishness, but the substitution of what may be called "social selfishness" for individual selfishness, and, second, that the Soviet polity both recognizes and utilizes competition, with the difference that it is competition in social service rather than in private advancement. It goes without saying that the evidence afforded by this volume is of the greatest value in estimating the practical possibilities of any plan for a socialized community.

HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

*Milk Production and Control: Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. 392. \$3.00.

For those who are content to discuss milk production and control from the standpoint of the needs of city people who desire pure and cheap food this book seems to be adequate. It is woefully lacking as a total picture of the social process and social values involved in the furnishing of milk to a great city. The issues of social justice which arise in the distribution of the consumer's dollar, the welfare of the producer, and his right to a living wage do not appear in this book. If one can forget this, the treatment is adequate and interesting.

One section treats communicable diseases transmitted through milk, giving information on human and bovine diseases that may be or are milk-borne, the epidemiological evidences of each disease, and the number of recorded outbreaks of disease that were traced to milk or milk products during the six-year period from 1924 to 1929.

A second section deals with public health supervision of milk, presenting data on the essential elements of milk supervision, the legal aspect of its supervision, the measurement of the results of milk-supervision effort, and the present status of milk supervision in this country.

The two other sections consider the nutritive properties of cow's milk and milk products, and the economic aspects of milk, the latter giving data on the consumption of fluid milk and milk products, the production, marketing, transportation, processing, and delivery of milk, and the economic importance of the sanitary quality of milk and cream.

ARTHUR E. HOLT

CHICAGO THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

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*Obstetric Education: A Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. 302. \$3.00.

The findings and recommendations incorporated in these reports are not the expressions of the ideas and opinions of any individual. They represent the consensus of a large group of teachers and leaders familiar with problems of maternity, and these opinions are based upon factual data and cumulative experiences. It was accepted as fundamental that all groups having to do with maternity problems and care should have the

necessary educational background. This applies to doctors, nurses, midwives and social workers, and the laity. It was also concluded that such educational facilities have not and are not now available generally for all of this personnel.

The obstetrical practitioner is the key man in maternity care, and the general *niveau* of obstetric practice cannot rise above his level. His education and training are very fundamental and must consist of preparation in basic sciences and in general medical education as for all who practice medicine, and of special education and training in obstetrics to prepare every practitioner of obstetrics. He must be kept up to improving standards by postgraduate "refresher" courses.

The requisite graduate education must be available for those who are to become specialists in this field of medicine and surgery. Similar fundamental educational opportunities must be available for those who are active in other fields. Co-operative educational activities for lay groups are essential for the securing of the proper maternal care, with the desired reduction in maternal and fetal morbidity and mortality.

F. L. ADAIR

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Growth and Development of the Child, Part II: Anatomy and Physiology.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. 629. \$4.00.

Thirty-seven authors (including some of the leading workers in anatomy, physiology, and pediatrics in this country) contribute to this volume. Each of the anatomical and physiological mechanisms of the body is taken as a subject for analysis and its growth and development considered from conception to full maturity. The obstacles which interrupt and interfere with normal development also are dealt with. The book as a whole presents to the specialist and student as complete a blue-print of the physical child as the present-day facts make possible. The study has been made from the twofold points of view of the laboratory and of the field of practice—that is, from the most carefully weighed facts and theories and from the experience resulting from the physician's daily practice. It is a sourcebook of facts for teachers, physicians, and social workers.

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Health Protection for the Preschool Child: A Publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.* New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xxi+275. \$2.50.

This volume from the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection presents the most complete and authentic picture of the present application of preventive medical and dental services to the children of this country. Detailed surveys were made in representative localities (urban and rural) covering nearly every state, and involving about 200,000 children. This work was under the direction of Drs. G. T. Palmer and P. Van Ingen. A mine of information and a guide toward further extension and improvement in these services, this volume should be studied by all parents, physicians, teachers, social workers and sociologists, as intelligent action of all these groups appears to be necessary for the institution of more complete measures of disease prevention for the American child.

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Cradle Days of Natal.* By GRAHAM MACKEURTAN. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930. Pp. xii+348. \$6.00.

This book offers a good and authentic history of the province of Natal from its discovery and naming by Vasco de Gama's fleet on Christmas Day, 1497, to its annexation by the British in 1844. It describes the adventures of the Portuguese castaways who were the first Europeans to enter the region, the development of trade and missionary activities, the rise of the Zulu power and the subsequent conflicts between Zulu and Boer and finally between Boer and English. A chapter devoted to the activities of Americans in Natal during the first half of the nineteenth century and their project for establishing a port there will prove of especial interest to students of early American trade and expansion.

The life of the native tribes is treated in rather summary fashion, but the author succeeds in giving a vivid picture of conditions at the Zulu court and among the first white missionaries and settlers. He has included long extracts from journals and other contemporary documents, many of which are not available to the average student. He is greatly interested in personalities and has given excellent portraits of the characters, both white and native, who played leading rôles during the early days of the colony. There is a good Bibliography.

RALPH LINTON

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

*Life in Lesu.* By HORTENSE POWDERMAKER. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1933. Pp. 352. \$4.00.

Using objective description rather than sympathetic introspection, the author makes available to the student information about one more preliterate society. In Lesu violations of the mores practically never occurred, although there are principles and rules which allow variations in this culture. Thus the individual conforms, without mental stress, to an intricate set of rules, rituals, procedures, and yet is allowed latitude for individuality. Desirable but lacking in this and similar studies are intimate life-histories which will reveal the development of this individuality within the cultural framework.

BROWN UNIVERSITY

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

*Human Aspects of Unemployment and Relief.* By JAMES NICKEL WILLIAMS. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1933. Pp. xvi+235. \$2.50.

This book presents the material already well known to social workers. The first part treats of the effects of unemployment upon family life, health, nerves, morale, and with sex attitudes and practices and delinquency among children. It speaks of the limitations of our relief programs and of the evils of relief-giving in untrained hands.

The second part of the book discusses some aspects of the relief situation in New York and the increased trend toward public relief arising from the unemployment crisis. It treats briefly of private child welfare and nursing agencies, churches, and schools in service to the unemployed. It omits discussion of other charades building and recreational agencies and settlements. The book is evidently intended for the popular reader.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

MOLLIE RAY CARROLL

*The Work of the Little Theatres.* By CLARENCE ARTHUR PERRY. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1933. Pp. 228. \$1.50.

In this handbook for Little Theater workers information is given covering the development of the Little Theater movement, the character of the productions offered, and practical suggestions concerning the promotion of dramatic contests by various types of organizations. The volume contains also a list of Little Theater groups, an annotated list of the more important plays, and a selected Bibliography for amateur workers in the drama.

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

J. F. STEINER

*The Museum and the Community.* By PAUL MARSHALL REA. Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press, 1932. Pp. xv+250.

A statistical study of the attendance, size, expenditures, and museum press of the American museums is here prepared for the use of their executives. Re-

gression lines of the best attainments are presented, oftener than (scarcely obtainable) averages, with an apparent precision not justified by the fundamental inconclusiveness of the data. The history and trends of museums, and a remedy for their present stasis, in the establishment of branches, are also discussed briefly.

S. C. GILFILLAN

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*Where Darwin Erred.* By CHARLES L. CLAYTON. Boston: Meador Publishing Co., 1933. Pp. 206. \$2.00.

A genial, but feeble, presentation of the old anthropomorphic theme that a "Supreme Intelligence," or God, is at work in the universe, creating living beings according to a preconceived plan. The author assumes that this creation was not accomplished in six days some five thousand years ago, but is a continuous process. The main contention of Darwin is thus assumed, but God is put in the place of "natural selection." In fact, Darwin's theory of natural selection appears to be the burr that has stimulated the author to the present kindergarten effort. Every educated reader knows that the mechanics of evolution have been under investigation by many competent biologists since Darwin, and that the final answers are not yet in. The names of scientists eminent in fields other than biology are brought in to bolster up the author's feeble arguments. We are informed that "Professor Compton recently announced the Heisenberg-Compton theory that an effective intelligence is behind the phenomena of nature" (p. 120). We are also regaled by the author's genealogical tree, traced back to Governor Bradford of the Plymouth colony. It is evident that the "Supreme Intelligence" nodded somewhere between Governor Bradford and Mr. Clayton, for how else can we account for such statements of alleged facts as the following: "The changed condition in the reproductive organs (at and during sexual maturity) ensues merely from the picture of the opposite sex in the mind of the individual" (p. 191)?

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Crime for Profit.* Edited by ERNEST D. MACDOUGALL. Boston: Stratford Co., 1933. Pp. xx+355. \$2.00.

"This book is not the result of serious, scientific research in mercenary crime" (p. xiii). But a little of it is. The rest is a strange mélange of muckraking and exposition of the problem as seen from the point of view of lawyer, educator, business man, theologian, and others. It is especially interesting to the student of crime as showing what various groups think about it.

C. C. VAN VECHTEN

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*The Cost of Living in the United States in 1931.* New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1932. Pp. viii+52.

This volume is a supplement to the study, *The Cost of Living in the United States 1914-1930*, published last year. As in that study the weights used in the



construction of the index are derived from various investigations made during the period 1921-29 and are supposed to be representative of postwar consumption. The base period is the average of the year 1923 instead of July, 1914, as in the reports prior to 1930.

According to this index the cost of food, clothing, and shelter was almost 25 per cent lower in December, 1931, than in 1923. All items entering into the cost of living were about 17 per cent below the 1923 level.

HAZEL KYRK

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*A Critique of Sublimation in Males.* By W. S. TAYLOR. "Genetic Psychology Monographs." Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press, 1933. Pp. 115. \$2.00.

Taylor presents here his original data which substantiate his intelligent and critical analysis of the concept of sublimation. Students of the nature of drives and wishes will find this study of interest.

ROBERT E. L. FARIS

BROWN UNIVERSITY

*The Mayawyaw Ritual.* By FRANCIS LAMBRECHT. Washington: Publications of the Catholic Anthropological Conference, 1932. Pp. 167. \$2.75.

The Mayawyaw are a small group of about 5,000, living in the mountain province of northern Luzon, Philippine Islands. They live near the Ifugao and the Igorotes, about whom we already know something.

The Mayawyaw are rice-growers; rice is the chief food of the people. Much ritual accompanies the preparation of the fields, the cultivation, and the harvest. This study is a detailed account of rice ritual. It is understood that accounts of marriage, death, and other rituals will be forthcoming in the future.

LESLIE A. WHITE

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

*Myths and Ceremonies of the Mandan and Hidatsa.* Collected by MARTHA WARREN BECKWITH. "Publications of Folk-Lore Foundations," Poughkeepsie, N.Y.: Vassar College, 1932. Pp. xi+118-267.

The Mandan and Hidatsa Indians were agricultural, village tribes living on the upper Missouri River, in North Dakota. They are interesting because, although they lived in the plains culture area in which bison hunting was so conspicuous, they were settled in villages and practiced agriculture.

This collection of myths and accounts of ceremonies includes such topics as ceremony of giving away wives, the flood, eagle trapping, etc. The intermingling of myth and ceremony is the most significant feature of the work.

LESLIE A. WHITE

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

## RECENT LITERATURE

### ABSTRACTS

The abstracts in this issue were prepared, under the direction of Francis E. Merrill and a member of the editorial staff, by J. S. Roucek, Mary C. Schauffler, E. A. Shils, and F. L. Weller. Each abstract is numbered at the end according to the classification in the July issue of this *Journal*.

#### I. HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY

110. BRIDGES, K. B. M. A Study of Social Development in Early Infancy. *Child Development*, IV (1933), 36-49.—Sixty-two infants, ranging in age from three weeks to two years, were observed almost daily in the Montreal Foundling and Baby Hospital for a period of three months. "Detailed records were kept of the children's behavior reactions and of the situations in which these occurred; special attention being paid to responses to social or emotion-producing situations." The author's findings may be summarized as follows: "Social development begins in relation to the adult. At first the adult comes to be associated with the satisfaction of various needs as a part of these agreeable experiences. . . . Beginning as early as four or five months a conflict slowly arises between the desire for social attention and a dislike for the consequent interference with individual liberty. . . . Social interest in other children begins a few weeks later than interest in adults. It grows slowly up to nine months of age, then more rapidly. . . . Nine- and ten-month-old babies pat and explore the environment, including themselves, rather independently of one another. . . . But by fourteen months a child begins to show preferences. . . . Mob behavior can be observed in a group of children between fifteen and twenty-four months of age. The children are more or less orderly, disciplined, and friendly with one another in the presence of an accepted authority. They become disorderly, refractory, and quarrelsome in the absence of this personal authority." 4 references. (I, 3).—*W. McTeer*. (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts*.)

111. RICHARD, G. Sociální prostředí a vytváření osobního charakteru [Social Environment and the Formation of Personal Character]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (June, 1933), 153-65.—The concept "milieu" is one which has been most popularized by sociology. The concept is borrowed from physiology, especially since Claude Bernard published his famous *Leçons sur la Vie*. Science must study man in his actual "milieu" and observe the constant variations corresponding to the differences of nations, civilizations, and races. The author's classification of "milieus" is: A. *Normal*, (1) domestic, (2) educational (in school), (3) religious, (4) community, (5) state, (6) profession, (7) spontaneous associations; B. *Abnormal*: (1) prisons and associations with criminals, (2) immoral circles. Each environment can influence its members by, (1) certain rules and prohibitions, and (2) its influence, which is suggestive, often unintentional, and hence hard to define. It influences emotion more than rational behavior. But without personal self-control, which results in a certain personal character, there could be no social or individual morality. All normal relations of the individual to his social environment strengthen this self-control, because the individual is forced to select conflicting influences. (I, 4).—*J. S. R.*

#### III. PEOPLES AND CULTURAL GROUPS

112. LENGYEL, V. Zahraníční Karpatorusové [Carpathian Russians Living Abroad]. *Narodnostní Obzor*, III, No. 4 (June, 1933), 280-82.—Altogether 450,000 to 480,000 Carpatho-Russians are settled abroad. There are some 20 communities in

Roumania (in former Hungarian territory). They have their own schools and libraries, but are Roumanized. They are also scattered throughout Hungary, but they are so Magyarized that only their church is left to them. The third group, numbering 10,000 persons, or 1.3 per cent of the local inhabitants, is located in Yugoslavia between Tisa and the Danube. They form an absolute majority in Kerestur and Kucura. They are also scattered in Croatia and Slavonia. The most numerous (350,000) are those settled in the United States. Their emigration began in 1882-85. They are divided into two religious groups, one in Homestead, Pennsylvania, and the other in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The first group has its own weekly, its own schools, 124 churches, a periodical for children, and a strong Sokol organization. The other publishes two weeklies, and supports its schools by contributions from its 20,000 members. These two groups were influential in joining Carpathian Russia to Czechoslovakia. Many live in Canada, Argentina, and approximately 500 are in Belgium and France. (III, 1).—J. S. R.

#### IV. CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS

113. ČEP, T. Sociální funkce československého sedláka [Social Function of the Czechoslovak Peasant]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (June, 1933), 251-55.—The Czechoslovak peasant has been a strong economic and spiritual support from which the nation has received its new strength, courage, and ideas. The peasant traditions are a part of Czechoslovak wisdom. National rejuvenation was based on a wide popular basis, that is, on the peasant masses. The peasantry has supplied the cities with fresh blood. Today, however, the village has lost its faith in itself and in its peasant traditions. (IV, 1).—J. S. R.

114. DUPRAT, G. L. Etnologická základy sociologického předvídání. [Ethnological Bases of Sociological Forecast]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (June, 1933), 166-82.—The rapid evolution of international economic and spiritual relations produces mutual assimilation, which is often more of a wish than a permanent reality. A return to ancestral customs can be explained by the law of latent persistence of social structures. Traditional habits change slowly. Recent aptitudes have no foundation if they conflict with the previous social structure. They cannot compete with the old aptitudes. No sociological forecasting can omit the influence of ethnic factors, because they show the typical characteristics of relatively homogeneous groups and because they determine the collective way of thinking and acting. Our knowledge of the old "races," which still survive although corrupted by amalgamation and admixtures, is absolutely insufficient. Hence no real scientific sociological forecasting can be done unless the ethnologists can offer pertinent data of contemporary preliterate people. (IV, 2).—J. S. R.

115. GARTH, T. R. The Incidence of Color Blindness among Races. *Science*, LXXVII (1933), 333-34.—A preliminary report of the results of an investigation to determine the incidence of color blindness among races with the Ishihara test. Results were as follows: (1) for unselected whites an incidence of 8.4 per cent among the males and 1.3 per cent among the females; (2) for unselected Jews an incidence of 4.0 per cent among the males and 0.0 per cent among the females; (3) for full-blood Indians from various tribes an incidence of 2.5 per cent among the males and 0.0 per cent among the females; (4) for full-blood Navaho Indians an incidence of 1.1 per cent among the males, and 0.7 per cent among the females; (5) for mixed-blood Indians an incidence of 5.2 per cent among the males and 0.8 per cent among the females; (6) for Mexicans from Old Mexico an incidence of 2.3 per cent among the males and 0.6 per cent among the females; (7) for Mexican immigrants an incidence of 2.5 per cent among the males and 0.9 per cent among the females; (8) for Spanish-Americans an incidence of 3.8 per cent among the males and 0.8 per cent among the females; (9) for southern Negroes an incidence of 3.8 per cent among the males and 0.8 per cent among the females; (10) for northern Negroes an incidence of 2.8 per cent among the males and 0.9 per cent among the females. (IV, 2).—H. W. Karn. (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts*.)

116. KAPRAS, JAN. Nadvýroba právníků ve světle otázky národnostní [The Overproduction of Lawyers from the Nationalistic Viewpoint]. *Národnostní Obsor*, III, No. 4 (June, 1933), 277-79.—There are approximately 60 per cent more lawyers than

Czechoslovakia needs. The question is seriously complicated by the fact that a large proportion of the students of national minorities are studying law. In 1930-31, 57 out of 100,000 Czechoslovaks studied law; in 1931-32, 61. Compared to the pre-war statistics, there are 75 per cent more Germans specializing in law than needed. Before the war, 29 out of 100,000 Germans studied law; in 1930-31, 49.9, and in 1931-32, 51.5. The corresponding figures for Hungarians specializing in law were: 53.1 per 100,000 in 1930-31, and 56.6 in 1931-32; for Russians, 21.7 per 100,000 in 1930-31, and 22.2 in 1931-32; for Poles, 27.0 per 100,000 in 1930-32; for Jews, 202.7 per 100,000 in 1930-31, and 233.3 in 1931-32. (IV, 2).—*J. S. R.*

117. PALIC, V. *Demokratizácia maďarskej menšiny v Československej republike* [The Democratization of the Hungarian Minority in the Czechoslovak Republic]. *Národnostní Obzor*, III, No. 4 (June, 1933), 273-77.—The cultural evolution of the Hungarian youth in Czechoslovakia can be divided into three periods: (1) 1918-25, a period of political uncertainty due to the imposition of the minorities status; (2) 1925-30, a period of the moderation of irredentism and tendency to toleration of the new conditions; (3) 1930, the present period, with the division of the minority into three groups: (a) the *Sarló* group, favoring the principles of the Third International; (b) the right wing renewing its irredentism; (c) those, mostly students, who are without leadership and occasionally under the influences of the Magyar opposition parties. At the end of 1932 the *Munkaközösség* movement appeared; it aimed to present a Magyar nationalistic, but also socialistic, program, which would recognize the political situation of the Hungarians as a minority group. The *Sarló* was founded in 1928. Its first organ, *Új Szó*, ceased for financial reasons and was replaced by the *As Út*. (IV, 2).—*J. S. R.*

#### V. POPULATION AND TERRITORIAL GROUPS

118. KIRKPATRICK, E. L. A Farm Philosophy. *Survey*, LXIX, No. 7 (July, 1933), 255-56.—Instead of trying to find what is wrong with country life, the Student Section of the American Country Life Association has tried to discover what is "right with country life." *First*, farming assures steady employment and sufficient food supply. *Second*, it provides a better living than is enjoyed by urban families on equivalent incomes. *Third*, the closer relation to parents and the tendency to develop initiative and dependability make it a better place to rear children. *Fourth*, it promotes co-operation in family life. *Fifth*, it provides opportunity for some of the most satisfying community activities. *Sixth*, it secures a more satisfying opportunity for the use of leisure time. *Seventh*, the proximity to nature develops certain qualities which, in turn, lead to a wholesome philosophy of life. (V, 6).—*F. L. W.*

119. WRIGHT, HENRY. Sinking Slums. *Survey Graphic*, XXII, No. 8 (August, 1933), 417-20.—In recent years slum areas have been increasing in extent and in disrepair at a discouraging rate, both in large and small cities. While cities have continued to spread in an unprecedented manner, their commercial and light industrial areas have stopped spreading and in some cases show definite signs of receding. The use values for the slum area are subject to reduction from two sides, outward toward the new suburbs and inward toward the business center. The probable use remaining for the slum areas is for residential purposes. This will bring about changes in relative land values and taxation, so that the slum may be reconstructed to accommodate those people to whom convenient location is an advantage. Reconstruction of slum and blighted areas is to prove the major activity in the next phase of the development of the city. (V, 5).—*M. C. S.*

#### VI. COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR

120. ČERNÓV, VIKTOR. K problému revoluce [The Problem of Revolution]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (June, 1933), 196-99.—Each revolution faces the future with hope and the past with hate. If the future is complicated, political and moral crises result. The resulting terrorism has two aspects: that from above, which is official and which theoretically justifies its fanaticism; and that from below, which is

of the masses with its orgies, "popular" courts, and passions. Popular terror usually begins each revolution; official terror usually comes at the end and signifies the weakness of the revolution. Revolution attempts to destroy the old political, economic, and social order and create a new one in its place. The strength of a revolution (as far as the materialized or intended reforms are concerned) has no constant relation to the extent of its use of force and bloodshed. This depends on the "will to fight" of the revolutionists, and on the behavior of the holders of power of the old régime. The more important revolutionists of the new period now refuse to glorify the use of force. The higher justification for a revolution results from the attempt of the reigning groups or classes to build their Chinese Wall against powerful historical processes. (VI, 2).—*J. S. R.*

121. MÜHLMANN, W. E. *Die Hitler Bewegung* [The Hitler Movement]. *Sociologus*, IX, No. 2 (June, 1932), 129-39.—The German national revolution is super-rational, embracing the whole personality and the whole nation. It is the triumph of feeling and belief over skepticism and objective need, and marks a mystical rejuvenation of the "folk" as a whole. The myths and the symbols of national socialism are based on yearning, readiness to sacrifice, faithfulness, and an orientation toward divinity. The intellectual above the struggle cannot comprehend it. (VI, 2).—*E. A. S.*

122. PIGORS, PAUL. *Leadership and Domination among Children*. *Sociologus*, IX, No. 2 (June, 1933), 140-56.—Leadership is power over others and is singularized by the presence of a common value, whereas domination is power over others and the exploitation of them for the furtherance of the dominator's end. Domination is simpler and makes its appearance earlier in childhood. Leadership appears only when co-operative play is possible. It requires self-discipline and voluntary submission to objective necessity, as well as a grasp of abstraction, awareness of others, and power of mental concentration. Domineering children are more dependent while child leaders are more independent and self-reliant and better able to amuse themselves when alone. Leaders show insight into situations and ability to adapt themselves to the needs of followers. (VI, 3).—*E. A. S.*

123. WHITE, LEONARD D. *The Citizen and His Public Servant*. *Survey*, LXIX No. 6 (June, 1933), 221.—From the answers of 7,168 persons it was found that those most friendly toward public officials were ladies, foreign-born, and young people. Those more hostile were the highly educated and the older people. National officials received the highest respect, city officials the least, with state officials intermediate. More than two-thirds were more willing to trust the honesty of the privately employed citizen. These attitudes were undoubtedly weighted with rumors and prejudices, but they are the psychological environment in which governments perform their functions. Public employment has its appeal and every demonstration of intelligence and honesty raises the public respect for it. (VI, 3).—*F. L. W.*

#### VII. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

124. HELLER, J. *Sovětský plakát* [The Soviet Poster]. *Časopis Svobodné Školy Politických Nauk*, V, No. 8 (May, 1933), 246-49.—The Soviet poster plays an important part in Soviet social life, especially in its anti-religious and political aims. Russia also utilizes posters for economic purposes. A new sphere of graphic work is the utilization of photography for political and commercial posters. This technique dates from 1919. (VII, 4).—*J. S. R.*

125. SOROKIN, P. A. *Studien zur Soziologie der Kunst. Pt. I. Die Reihenfolge der Künste im Kulturellen Lebensprozess* [Studies in the Sociology of Art. Pt. I. Succession of Art Forms in the Cultural Process]. *Sociologus*, IX, No. 1 (March, 1933), 45-63.—Art has been neglected by social scientists as an object of study. It offers the obvious advantage that its productions have objective existence. What is more, it is very closely bound up with all of cultural life and for that reason is a clear index to the inner psycho-social form of a culture. On the problem of succession of artistic forms and modes, the two main works are Petric's *Revolutions of Civilization* and Paul Ligeti's

*Der Weg aus dem Chaos.* Petrie holds that all the arts do not blossom at one period in the life of a culture but rather in a temporal series, progressing from "archaic form to freedom." Petrie, however, does not show any objective basis for his classifications or periods. For Ligeti the series of architecture, sculpture, and painting is invariable for all cultures. The length of the cycles is computable for different cultures and periods when historically investigated. Ligeti's formulations are incorrect, since cultures show various sequences, and there is no temporal uniformity. More valuable are Ligeti's analyses of the correlation between art forms and other social processes. (VII, 5).—*E. A. S.*

#### VIII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS, SOCIAL PATHOLOGY, AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

**126. COURTHIAL, ANDREE.** What is a Juvenile Delinquent? *Family*, XIV, No. 5 (July, 1933), 169-71.—Legally, a delinquent is a transgressor of the law. Psychologically, the delinquent is a child seeking emotional satisfactions which he cannot find in the environment in which he lives. The delinquent child is differentiated from other children by a greater degree of egocentrism and by a lack of emotional balance. The latter may be attributed to the constitutional nature of the child. Unsatisfied egocentrism intensifies unstable emotions. A persistence in old habits and a lack of suggestibility to new leads are also traits characteristic of children starting on a delinquent career. Emotions are more important than intelligence in determining the degree of adjustment. (VIII, 2).—*M. C. S.*

**127. FAIRBANK, R. E.** Suicide. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, XCVIII (1932), 1711-14.—Suicide is most frequently associated with depression, although it has occurred in almost every type of mental illness. The most common personality trait is that termed by Muncie the "rigid" personality. This lack of plasticity in the makeup is one of the factors which influence a patient to suicide. A family history of suicide is found in only a few cases. Most patients give warnings of suicide before the attempt. There is usually a feeling of failure or frustration. The methods used in self-destruction are described and practical problems in the hospital care of suicidal cases are discussed. (VIII, 4).—*D. J. Ingle.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts.*)

**128. HODGKISS, M.** The Delinquent Girl in Chicago. II. The Influence of Broken Homes and Working Mothers. *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, III (1933), 259-74.—Three hundred sixty-two delinquent girls were matched for age and nationality or race with the same number of school girls who lived in approximately the same parts of Chicago as did the delinquents. When the broken home was defined as one from which one or both natural parents were absent, it was found that 67 per cent of the delinquents and 45 per cent of the non-delinquents came from such homes. When the broken home was defined as one containing only one parent, the difference between delinquents and non-delinquents was not so great. The mothers of 38 per cent of the delinquent girls, as compared with 29 per cent for the non-delinquents, worked for wages. When broken homes were held constant, however, these differences largely disappeared. Thus it seemed that the broken home was more directly related to delinquency than was the fact that the mother worked. (VIII, 2).—*H. Lange.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts.*)

**129. PARSLEY, M.** The Delinquent Girl in Chicago. III. The Influence of Ordinal Position and Size of Family. *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, III (1933), 274-83.—Three hundred sixty-one delinquent girls were compared with 361 of the same age and nationality who were non-delinquent. The delinquents came from smaller families than did the non-delinquents, and only children were more frequent among them. No significantly larger proportion of the delinquents than of the non-delinquents were oldest in the family, but the proportion of non-delinquents who were the youngest in the family was definitely greater than was found among the delinquents. (VIII, 2).—*H. Lange.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts.*)

**130. RUSCHE, GEORG.** Arbeitsmarkt und Strafvollzug [Labor Market and Punishment]. *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung*, II, No. 1 (April, 1933), 63-78.—The

function of punishment is to dissuade or discourage criminals from further committance of acts not sanctioned by society. This is done by creating situations which give them less satisfaction than the freedom to commit crime. Accordingly, in the cases of most criminals who come from lower economic classes, the punishment situation should be even less satisfactory than their ordinary social life so that they may not prefer punishment to their usual business. When reserve labor supply is great and wages and standards of living are low, punishment will be cruel and sometimes even fatal. When the demand for labor is great and wages are high, it is considered more logical to train criminals to become diligent and honest workers. This has been evidenced in the history of modern European civilization. (VIII, 2).—*E. A. S.*

### IX. THEORY AND METHODS

131. BAIN, READ. Die Behavioristische Einstellung in der Soziologie [The Behaviorist Position in Sociology]. *Sociologus*, IX, No. 1 (March, 1933), 28-41.—American sociology is now more realistic than it was twenty years ago. It is dichotomized into the case-study and behavioristic approaches. The former uses sympathy and understanding, and since the objects of its study are unique, it suffers from subjectivism. Behaviorist sociology studies recurrent phenomenon and uses the statistical method on observable and overt acts. It strives to make quantitative statements of its results. It tries to use data which are generally available and objective. It attempts to organize its data in temporal series. Culture areas are used for the delimitation of sociological research problems. Wherever possible the behaviorist uses experimentation which may be repeated by some other investigation. (IX, 6).—*E. A. S.*

132. DIEHL, N. E., AND WILSON, ROBERT S. Can Listening Become a Case Work Art? *Family*, XIV, No. 4 (June, 1933), 99-105.—The usual type of listening results from fatigue, passivity, befuddlement, or inability to manage the interview. "Expectant" or "understanding" listening enables the interviewer to play a dynamic rôle. The listener fills the dual rôle of confidant and stranger, of participant and outside observer. Listening of this character seeks motivations, reactions to experience, interpretations which are ordinarily not articulated, but which are conveyed by such non-verbal gestures as movements or expressions of eyes, posture, pitch, inflection, and speed of voice, and hand movements. This type of listening levels the discrepancies of experience and social status. The client attempts to articulate his experience and feelings in terms of the "generalized other" as represented by the listener. He comes more and more to take the listener's attitude toward his own experience. He can see his own hope of what he might be reflected in the attitude of the interviewer. (IX, 1).—*M. C. S.*

133. ŠAPOVAL, MYKYTA J. Soudobá ukrajinská sociologická myšlenka a práce [Contemporary Ukrainian Sociological Thought and Work]. *Sociologická Revue*, IV, Nos. 2-3 (June, 1933), 189-95.—The U.S.S.R. controls its public schools more than any other country except the United States. The textbooks used are: Kušner, *The Outline of the Evolution of Social Forms*; Lozovik, *History of Society*; Semkovskij, *Marxist Chrestomatia*; P. Christuk, *An Outline of History of Class Struggles and Socialism*; Zalužnij, *Theory of Collectivity*; Frič, *Sociology of Art*; and Lunačarsky, *Sociology of Music*. They are used in higher educational institutions. In secondary professional schools the following are used: Lozovik, *History of Society*; J. Hordon and M. Zotin, *Handbook of Science about Society*; M. Volfson, *An Outline of Science about Society*. The lower schools use: J. Bilik, *Science about Society for Workers' Schools*, and B. Šteingart, *Textbook of Science about Society*. The masses in Ukraina read mostly P. Kovalenk, *A Book for Political Literacy*. The schools of the communist party use N. Bucharin's *Historical Materialism as a Course in Marxist Sociology*. The character of all these books is determined by the propagandist efforts of the present communist régime. (IX, 4).—*J. S. R.*

134. PARK, R. E. William Graham Sumner's Gesellschaftsbegriff [William Graham Sumner's Conception of Society]. *Vierteljahrshefte für Soziologie*, VII, No. 1 (1933), 83-92.—For Sumner: society has territorial organization of atomistic individuals strongly bound by mores, convention, tradition, and conscience. The most potent

forces are competition and co-operation. Generally, society is only a group of groups, with each of the groups morally isolated, forming by means of its solidarity a "we-group." This leads to Sumner's concept of ethnocentrism which makes the values of one's own group the basis for all judgments and actions toward other groups. The intra-group relations take a moral character, while the inter-group relations take on a political aspect in so far as they are a *modus vivendi* between groups of divergent interests. More precisely, society comprises the following hierarchy of relations—ecological, economic, political, and moral, in accord with the standpoint from which society is considered, i.e., (1) statistical unit, (2) ecological organization, (3) political unit, or (4) cultural unit. Thus every territorially organized society may be the object of (1) human geography or ecology, (2) economic sciences, (3) political science, (4) social anthropology or sociology. The relations in this system are rarely found in isolation. There are relationships which are primarily symbiotic. But even these are differentiated from subhuman symbiosis by the existence of consciousness, by means of which mores, modes, conventions, good manners, public opinion, etc., exist. The shorter the social and physical distance between human beings the closer does society approximate the intimacy of the moral order. (IX, 6).—E. A. S.

135. G. S. How We Behave in Other People's Houses. *Survey*, LXIX, No. 6 (June, 1933), 218-19.—Social workers must meet their clients where they are, not where the worker is. If such a practice as smoking removes the confidence of the client, a good social worker will stop it. The family should not be discussed with the neighbors or children, since this information may be false. The social worker who looks into cupboards because she doubts the word of her client challenges the family to beat her at her own game. She destroys mutual confidence. (IX, 1).—F. L. W.



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## THE CHANGING LIFE OF NATIVE PEOPLES IN THE PACIFIC AREA: A SKETCH IN CULTURAL DYNAMICS

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### ABSTRACT

Through new communications and aggressive expansion mankind of the modern era is being thrown together with accelerating vigor. Trader and missionary influences comprised the first specialized wave of "Europeanism" over the Pacific, of cultural as contrasted with militant penetration. In more accessible and hospitable regions trade and mission activities produced what might be called a "native-mission-trader" culture which, in the temporary absence of further cultural penetration, tended to reach an equilibrium. Later increase in informal contacts and purposeful government pressure marked another period of cultural flux, under which uprisings, reversions to "savagery," and warlike restlessness occurred. Two main emphases are apparent, one looking toward assimilation, the other toward preservation of the indigenous culture and identity. In the last year or two economic conditions in the Pacific area have prevented adequate adjustment of native peoples in immigrant culture. Discriminations arise on the basis of color. The situation is such that unless dominant peoples undertake logical remedies in administrative practice and educational policy the cultural nationalism of smaller groups is due to froth over with greater or less violence before reaching the level of readjustment.

Imbedded deep in the folk-lore and early history of mankind is the idea of dispersal and migration. Better food prospects, pressure of enemies, the lure of adventure seem to have been the main forces that caused human groups to move out, step by step, canoe stroke by canoe stroke, to the habitable margins of the earth.

We of what is called the modern era are faced with the exciting if somewhat terrifying prospect of a new world order, a new world tendency, more or less suddenly, of a centripetal or inflicting tendency, in

which, through new communications and aggressive expansion on the part of certain groups, mankind in all its diverse racial and cultural forms, product of specialization in isolated areas, is being thrown together with accelerating vigor.

If there are regions where this new jostling is fraught with more serious consequences for immediate human destiny, nowhere, at least, has such a spectacular meeting of extremes taken place as along the coasts and among the scattered islands of the Pacific Ocean. What might be called the fragmentation of humanity reached its most marked form among the hills, along the shore valleys, and upon the coral islets of Malaysia, New Guinea, and Oceania; also upon the spreading continents of Australia and the two Americas. Families and tribes, variously fused or inbred, showing diverse physical characteristics, migrating, stabilizing, and migrating again, fitting themselves to life in a variety of environments from tropic to arctic, developing independently and by borrowing from neighbors diverse stores of thought and custom, became gradually pieced together into the kaleidoscopic human pattern found by adventurers from Europe at the beginning of the modern period.

In upon this old Pacific came the aggressive imperialism of modern times, having as its main features exploration, pacification, missionizing, economic exploitation, political domination, and at the last stage amelioration and philanthropy. Two main types of contact between native and immigrant peoples may be distinguished, first an uncontrolled and "natural" interaction, second a controlled and purposeful impact.

Exploration and exploitation fall mainly into the former type. The voyagers (and their later counterpart, tourists), together with the traders and settlers, were not particularly concerned with altering native life except perhaps as they might deprecate hostilities that threatened the stability of their personal enterprises. In contrast, missionaries and officials have tried variously to protect the native and foster or refashion his ways in relation to definite ideals and ends. Where necessary, government representatives have used warships and soldiers, courts and prisons, to secure order and produce conformity to those codes of behavior believed desirable if the "savage" was to live successfully alongside "civilized" humanity.

This difference in attitude between the exploiter and the official (except in certain areas where the two were fairly synonymous) and between the exploiter and the missionary, even to some extent between the official and the missionary, has been a source of frequent conflict between these groups that is by no means resolved today. It also reminds us that the immigrant Western and Oriental cultures coming in upon indigenous peoples have not been transported as a working whole; they have arrived in fragmentary and specialized form as represented in the personalities of the frontier, for long at least almost exclusively menfolk, and ranging from non-conformist evangelists to convicts and beachcombers. The task of the native peoples in trying to find satisfactory patterns of behavior amid the new conditions was thus greatly complicated.

The modern historical scene opens in forceful style with four types of actors entering the Pacific from the Old World in heroic if extremely uncomfortable little caravels: shipmen, traders, fighting men, and priests. It will be sufficient to remind ourselves of the first acts of penetration and control, in which the strong arm prevailed. Spain parcels out Central and South America to the conquistadors and disputes with the Portuguese and Dutch, and later with the British and French, the monopoly of the Indies; European Russia presses eastward to the Pacific seaboard; the British, French, and Dutch carve settlements from the hunting ground of the North American Indian; Chinese, driving the Dutch from Formosa, begin intensive settlement of that island; in Hokkaido the Ainu are subjected by the House of Matsumae; the aboriginal tribes of Australia and Tasmania are pushed back or hunted down; one by one the Pacific island groups are charted and occupied, until today none but a few tribes in the mountainous heart of New Guinea remain untouched. The transition from trader and settler to conqueror and sovereign is accomplished with varying degrees of ease.

A student making an inventory of goods, say, in the canoe of a *coureur du bois* in French Canada, in some hot-roofed trading station among thatched huts along a Pacific island lagoon, or in the pack of some itinerant hawker in Maori, Aborigine, or Ainu country, would find that the same common pattern of human needs and tastes, the

With the trader, and often ahead of him, went the missionary, representative of this or that religious, ethical, and intellectual system of the West. Unsatisfied to let the indigenous peoples choose from his wares, he sought vigorously to replace native gods and taboos with the Christian deity and biblical texts. Here easily, there only after long patience and even sacrifice of life, foothold was gained. In a real sense the mission enterprise was cultural pioneering. Along with religious ideas and practices its workers brought the health measures of the time, established schools, encouraged the arts of peace; bridging the language gap they reduced hitherto oral tongues to writing; they were the first ethnologists. Their activities smoothed the rugged corners and harsh edges from indigenous ways, broke down enmities and the narrower loyalties, and so, intentionally or otherwise, prepared the way for other forms of penetration.

Trader and missionary influences, together with less intensive contact with other types of whites, comprised the first specialized wave of "Europeanism" over the Pacific, of cultural as contrasted with militant penetration. The response of the indigenous peoples varied with local circumstance. Where population groups were massive, or access to them (physical or mental) was thwarted by geographic factors, nomadic habits, internal feuds and warfare, or gripping social and religious systems, such influences tended, at least for a long time, to be small or restricted to small groups; peoples on the Asiatic mainland, the aborigines of northern Formosa, hill tribes of the Philippines, Borneo, and Melanesia form examples of this. But in the more accessible and hospitable regions having settled and compact population groups, notably in the smaller Pacific islands, trade and mission activities were successful in producing something of a cultural revolution. What might be called a "native-mission-trader" culture emerged, representing a more or less successful fusion between elements of the old life that demonstrated their survival value and such elements of the new as were adopted spontaneously or as part of the will of the new deity.

Where further waves of cultural penetration did not arrive immediately, this new type of life tended to reach an equilibrium. The Indian tribes in the woodlands of North America, for instance, under the stimulus of the vast fur-trade enterprise and of Jesuit mis-

sion work, likewise of a new interaction thus produced between tribal groups hitherto isolated and inimical, underwent extensive changes in material culture, economic organization, and social structure. This new type of life became stabilized over more than a century until it in turn was revolutionized as a result of the westward march of white settlement, the passing of the forests, and the segregation of Indian groups on reserves.

Scattered through the Pacific today there are myriad communities whose life remains more or less at this stage, though trader and missionary influence has been supplemented increasingly by that of officials, as representatives of the governing authority: rural Mexican or Filipino barrios, Pueblo, Navaho and other Indian villages of Southwest United States, Indian and Eskimo bands of Northern Canada and Alaska, the peoples of the Gilbert and Ellice groups, Tonga, and the more isolated portions of Fiji, Samoa, French Oceania, the Japanese mandated islands, and Melanesia. The many native states and rural communities of the Netherlands East Indies, French Indo-China, British Malaya, and the religious minorities of the Philippines, Mohammedan and "pagan," are in much the same position, though in these instances Christian missions have failed to penetrate extensively so that the new balance of life on the western side is based primarily on trader and official influences. Living in more or less isolated or specialized environments, or else bulwarked by conservatism and hedged around with protective laws, all these groups have escaped the pressure experienced by those in the direct path of alien migration and economic development and have been able to pick and choose from that portion of the alien culture reaching them.

So thoroughly are the visible externals of the old life preserved among many such peoples that the casual visitor may describe them as still living in the ways of their ancestors. Yet closer study shows the cultural revolution that has taken place. Thought-life, for instance, has been adjusted extensively to admit the new realm of experience even where the vernacular speech alone is used. New weapons brought altered methods of fighting and usually upset the earlier distribution and arrangement of the settlements. Many of these communities, by geographic accident accessible to the settlement points chosen by

aliens met with fortunate and unfortunate experiences denied to those more isolated. Adoption of trade goods not only brought alterations in material culture as such, but also led to modification in the prestige of crafts and craft workers and perhaps in the traditional division of labor between the sexes; likewise it stimulated production of those goods desired by the trader in exchange for his wares. Social organization and individual conduct became altered voluntarily, or in relation to the codes presented by the government and by the missions where these had successfully penetrated, and the new forms became bulwarked not by the traditional taboos but by the judicial institutions of the one and the spiritual authority of the other.

The student finds, however, that the new equilibrium is nowhere perfect. Difficulties arise between the native and his trader in the course of mutual exploitation. There is a disputed fringe of behavior where the exhortations of the missionary conflict with established native practice—sexual customs, belief in demons and magic (of the indigenous brand), desirability of native dances, and other leisure pursuits upon which suspicion or direct ban has fallen. Official policies often run counter to cherished tribal ways. And the diversity in patterns of conduct presented by different types of aliens, together with the divergence between trader, missionary, and official aims in dealing with the native, makes for at least some measure of confusion and misunderstanding.

Yet upon such more isolated societies the network of wider cultural relationships is tightening yearly. Informal contacts—travel, motion pictures, admiring tourists or lotus seekers, the powerful influence of individuals having mixed ancestry—together with the purposeful pressure of government amelioration are shaking this first new balance of life, which is the basis of present conservatism. Another period of cultural flux is under way or presaged. This is especially marked among those groups accessible to the developing travel routes, urban centers, or focal points of trading activity. Such cities of the western Pacific as Singapore, Batavia, Saigon, Manila, and Taihoku, with their many satellite centers, and also the newer island towns of the east and central Pacific such as Honolulu, Suva, Apia, Pago Pago, Papeete, Noumea, Port Vila, Tulagi, Rabaul,

and Port Moresby, with their polyglot populations, their wharves, stores, offices, schools, hospitals, and prisons, are generating points of present and future change attracting individuals from the more marginal areas, and sending out stimulating influences, the explosive and expansive forces that are stirring in the outside world.

In some tropical areas unsuited for extensive settlement by aliens but where valuable plantation lands or mineral resources were discovered, modification was drastic. Indigenous peoples were compelled to work or produce for the dominant group; the "culture system" of Java and the "peonage" system of the Spanish colonies form the outstanding instances of this. Again land was taken, bought, or leased, and upon it native or introduced labor cultivated and delved for alien profit. A reminder need hardly be given of the labor traffic and indenture systems which flourished in the tropical Pacific, and which in a more carefully controlled form still continue, affecting culturally the communities from which the laborers are drawn, the laborers themselves, and the indigenous peoples in the regions where they go to work.

Under such conditions the earlier reintegration of life, especially the simple faith of early converts, tended to break down. Yet so far as individual natives strove to adjust to the complex patterns of behavior appearing before them they seemed to touch only the visible and superficial externals, with results usually disastrous. Over against them were alien minds and habits seemingly impenetrable and irreconcilable with their own valued usages. Native leaders saw their people faced by loss of autonomy and of territory, looked back with poignant memory to the good old days, resented the confidently domineering ways of the newcomers who were thwarting their activities at so many points, could foresee no future other than the displacement and destruction of their race. Group after group, therefore, resorted to arms, even to extremes of ferocity, in the attempt to drive back the invasion.

It is only along such lines of cultural pressure that the many uprisings, reversions to "savagery," and warlike restlessness in general that have marked dependency history in the Pacific as elsewhere can be fully understood. Such uprisings have occurred in numerous islands of the American colonies and in the Philippines; in Formosa under the

Chinese "every three years an outbreak, every five years a rebellion," became proverbial, so that they, and later the Japanese had to maintain a guard line to prevent raids by the aboriginal tribes upon the settled areas; the Malays and Indo-Chinese offered periodic resistances, and piracy became rife; stand after stand was made by the Ainu; in North America the history of the frontier is largely a story of Indian reaction to encroachment, and Indian affairs were for long a charge of the War Department; many a resisting Aborigine band was decimated, even exterminated along with the indigenous game in Australia; elaborate wars were waged in New Zealand before the Maoris were overwhelmed by force of numbers; the French had to subdue outbreaks in New Caledonia and Tahiti, the British in Fiji and the Solomons, while warships of both nations cruised for decades the turbulent New Hebrides; a tri-partite rule of Britain, United States, and Germany failed to produce native political order in Samoa, while during 1909 under the later German régime in the western portion of the group a fleet had to steam in haste to Apia in order to quell an uprising; in 1889 and 1895 occurred the last abortive attempts of the native Hawaiian to throw off alien political control. Except for a few peoples who still resist military pressure and official control in remote hill fastnesses, such active manifestations among Pacific peoples have been and are crushed. Where necessary, such resisting indigenous groups were segregated, there to be subjected to the pacification and civilizing process more efficiently.

From a sense of the futility of resistance, numbers of groups or individuals passed to a philosophy of defeatism were stricken with the numbness of maladjustment and cultural inadequacy. Whenever, in the same personality, an acute cultural conflict takes place, these psychological or pathological conditions tend at times to assert themselves. Prolonged, their effect seems fatal to morale and to physical existence itself. This is often referred to by writers as "the psychological factor in depopulation," "the decay of the will to live"; but few make any effort to elaborate upon the complex physical, economic, social, and intellectual clash involved in each particular situation to bring about the psychic state thus summarized.

Humanity, however, does not give away easily to extinction. Even



amid the greatest stress, apart from some definite biological damage to the stock as perhaps through contagious disease or close inbreeding combined with malnutrition, the struggle for integration and happiness goes on.

A typical way in which groups have sought adjustment under what might be called the cultural-pathological circumstances here sketched has been to assert a conscious conservatism. The Ainu, at at least until this generation, clung tenaciously to the "bear feast" and other customs, steadily resisting Japanization; the old-time American Indian "medicine lodge," "sun dance," "katchina," and other beliefs and ceremonies, even though somewhat modified through Western contact, are preserved assiduously by "pagan" groups here and there; the Moros and other non-Christian peoples of the Philippines hold to their identity; in Hawaii the so-called "revival of heathenism" under King Kalakaua may be classed in this category, while throughout Malaysia, Melanesia, Micronesia, and Polynesia today a studied conservatism is shown, particularly by the older people, as modern influences seep in.

Another typical way in which adjustment has been sought, and closely related to the foregoing, has been in the more or less bizarre religious and mystical societies and movements that flourish among groups under pressure: the ghost dance, dream drum, and peyote cults that in turn spread among the American Indian tribes of the plains, the Hauhau, Te Whiti, Rua, and like movements among Maori tribes, the Colorum and similar organizations in the Philippines, the Tuka or Immortality faith in Fiji during the 'eighties, the Taro Cult, Vailala madness and other religious manifestations in New Guinea, the Ronovuro outbreak in the New Hebrides, the Whistlers in Tahiti and the Tuamotus, and a cult that emerged during 1930 in the Gilbert Islands when a native pastor had the revelation that he was "The Father of God" are examples of this.<sup>1</sup> Their

<sup>1</sup> A considerable ethnological or historical literature deals with the movements in North America and New Zealand; for the others referred to see: C. Worcester and R. Hayden, *The Philippines Past and Present* (New York, 1930), p. 675; *Transactions of the Fijian Society, 1908-1910* (Suva), pp. 51-57 (Tuka); E. W. P. Chinnery and A. C. Haddon, "Five New Religious Cults in British New Guinea," in *Hibbert Journal*, 1911, 2, 2, also T. E. Williams, *Outcasts of Paradise* (London, 1928); R. S. Sahlins, *South Seas* (London, 1928), pp. 108-110; Robert H. Lowie, *Primitive Society* (London, 1935), 31, Colonial Office, London.

prophets told of salvation for the people in this life or the life to come, and often of magical interventions that would sweep out the aggressor and restore the land and ancient customs. In some instances the movements assumed extremely violent form and had to be suppressed by force with the result that their mystical character became even more marked. True, indigenous peoples have no monopoly of such societies and prophecies—they arise equally from the fertile soil of transitional periods in both Occident and Orient. Yet in the situations here viewed they have peculiar significance, not as barbarous survivals, but as spontaneous attempts to give an adequate reintegration for life amid the new conditions. Short as they may fall of being a permanently satisfactory adjustment, naïve as may appear their simple fusions of indigenous with immigrant theologies and practices, refuges though they be in which a too harassed folk find solace and an unpractical solution for their difficulties, nevertheless an understanding of their growth and motivating force, leadership, structure, and ceremonial should prove revealing both to students of culture change and to the missionaries or administrators who are trying to find bridges for the transition period. They are all too little examined.

In some areas these rallying movements arising from changing conditions or from aggression assume a more practical form. Headed, and with their aims vocalized, by indigenous leaders more advanced in the new culture and in some cases, openly or secretly, by outsiders inspired either with disinterested or interested motives, they assume the form of movements for political autonomy or for cultural assertion; on a wider scale they become movements for nationalism. Here examples are numerous: the Boedi Oetomo (Beautiful Striving), Sarekat Islam, Perhimpoeaan Indonesia, and other organizations of the Netherlands East Indies; the Annamite Nationalist Society in Indo-China; the Katipunan and Tugulan organizations in the Philippines; the Young Maori party and the Maori renaissance in New Zealand; the Viti Cauravou or Young Fijian Society; the Mau or Opinion movements in both Western and American Samoa; the native lodges in Hawaii. Even among the scattered and broken Indian tribes of North America the same manifestation is found on both a local and national scale and is becoming increasingly organized.

A Dutch writer suggests that the origins of such cultural national assertion lie in the development of an "inferiority complex" which

. . . . leads to sensitiveness . . . . to a feeling of being encroached upon, of being wronged. This leads again through the mechanism of compensation, to the rejection of every form of dependence, to resistance against every form of subordination, to an often exaggerated strengthening of self-consciousness and to non-cooperation. The humiliating feeling of inequality is compensated by self-exaltation.<sup>2</sup>

We may point out here, however, that such manifestations are not necessarily unhealthy; each local example is worthwhile or otherwise according to the adequacy of its leadership, the capacity of those led, the steps taken by the movement, and similar factors in the local setting.

On the whole, governing authorities have been singularly unsuccessful in grappling with organizations of this kind. They have used the methods of logical argument, appeal to patriotism, accusation of ingratitude for obvious benefits received, legal control over opposition leaders, open condemnation, and military suppression. But the doctor does not parley with or physically castigate a patient who is ill; he diagnoses and treats. Here, even more than in the case of religious integrations, there is need for study and understanding of the form and the vitality of such movements as a first requirement of successful reconciliation and co-operation.

Where a manifestation of this kind is dallied with or thwarted it tends to wax in strength; where crushed by force from active demonstration it tends to lapse into a more mystical pattern that only increases its tenacity. An outstanding example can be drawn from New Zealand in connection with the so-called King Movement. In 1859-60 a number of Maori tribes rallied under an elected "king" in the hope of preserving their identity in the face of white penetration. Friction arose that led to a long-drawn war, followed by land confiscation. Though in time the government effected a formal reconciliation with the Kingite tribes, the latter kept themselves strictly aloof for some six decades from the white settlements that surrounded them and from all official schemes of amelioration. Loyalty to the king family has been maintained (the present ruler is third in the

<sup>2</sup> In Dr. B. Schrieke (ed.), *The Effect of Western Influence on Native Civilizations in the Malay Archipelago* (Batavia, 1929), p. 243.

line of succession), a native parliament determines the tribal affairs, and there is a remarkable unity derived partly from a conscious preservation of the old ways and partly from a common basis of unforgotten grievance. Only since 1929, when the government through the findings of a Royal Commission admitted the injustice of the land confiscations and offered financial compensation, and when Maori leaders from other tribes secured the participation of Kingite young people in land settlement schemes and on the sports field, has the wall of mystical autonomy shown signs of being breached.

Here and there individual natives, particularly those of part-alien ancestry, have severed themselves or were severed from their indigenous groups and have sought to make their way within the immigrant economic, social, or intellectual life. This raises the question of government policies, educational and ameliorative, in the modern period. What measures have been taken in the different areas to aid the native peoples in these transitional difficulties? How far have they been encouraged to adjust into the life of the dominant group, and with what results?

The first moves on the part of governing authorities were noted as in the direction of producing stability and native conformity to codes and usages essential for close living with alien groups. Various forms of protection were also introduced, mainly the supervision of land and other dealings between natives and immigrants, in order to shield the former from the results of their incompetence in the new ways. In recent years, however, under the influence of democratic and philanthropic ideas stirring in Western countries, together with the pressure of local needs and problems, official policies have assumed a more positive form; health work, education, the development of councils and courts to give a greater self-government, measures for economic stimulation, have not only been introduced into most dependencies but also have become in the eyes of the world the tests of successful dependency administration.

In assuming this greater responsibility the colonial powers have worked out a considerable diversity of aims and practices, the result of the mingling in each place of the philosophies and institutions of the homeland and the peculiar demands of the immediate situation.

Two main emphases have been apparent, one looking toward assimilation of native groups into the dominant culture, the other toward the preservation of the indigenous culture and identity. In general the policies of the United States and Japan lean most strongly toward the first today, those of Britain, Holland, Australia, and New Zealand toward the second; France has a more intermediate policy of assimilating the few most advanced in the new ways but of keeping the majority at a stage of "association."

What then of individuals who strive to pass from one culture to the other? Two main elements determine their success: school training, and the opportunities available in the dominant society. Where a policy of assimilation is emphasized in the schools, children naturally get the greater stimulus and preparation. But let us follow them out into the alien world. Some native groups and communities are so situated that their ambitious members have been able to find a satisfactory place in the wider culture. The enterprising Maori has at hand a fully developed Western society in which he may find a place and meet with relatively little discrimination; in Hawaii with its very mobile social life and amazing economic expansion by American capital using imported labor the native Hawaiians have had the fullest scope for any ambitions they might show; the urban centers of Southwest Asia, Malaysia, and the Central Pacific islands have provided many official and commercial openings for part-natives and natives unattached to indigenous groups or desirous of finding a career along lines other than the traditional. A fair demonstration has been given of the fact that, provided there is opportunity, some at least from the ranks of native peoples are capable of achieving adjustment in terms of Western values.

But the great portion of the Pacific picture shows this as anything but typical of present conditions. In the last year or two markets for tropical products have become thoroughly glutted, economic development along commercial lines has more or less retrogressed, and the cities and towns have an oversupply of labor. Even if expansion is renewed, there is no prospect of enough jobs for the increasing number of ambitious or maladjusted young people who want to follow the new ways. Again we are touching an issue with far wider application than among native groups—indeed a fundamental question

of educational policy everywhere. The circumstances are peculiarly aggravated here, however, as such individuals are moving, or in the case of the assimilative policy being turned, from an indigenous subsistence economy to a commercial sphere which has little place for them.

Even more serious perhaps is the fact that their hopes are being directed out into a social world which for the most part discriminates against them on the basis of racial differences. The tolerance produced in New Zealand through the historical relationships of Maori and European, the "aloha" atmosphere of island Hawaii, the attitudes in mixed frontier towns where color prejudice is at its minimum, do not by any means represent the sentiment in more settled communities, especially those of English-speaking countries. The extreme illustration of this is found in the experience of certain American Indian groups where the pressure of an assimilative policy is showing clear results. For decades schooling and other official activities have had as their direct object the refashioning of the Indian tribesfolk into individual American citizens. Success has been achieved to a point where among many or most the traditional Indian disciplines and loyalties are breaking or broken down; cultural disintegration has set in, reducing the tribal entity to an aggregation of struggling families and individuals. Where these are still held together by the possession of reservation lands in common or adjoining, a state of competition and mutual exploitation, sometimes of the most exaggerated kind, replaces in greater or less degree the older co-operation. Where there is no such physical tie they tend to scatter into the larger American milieu.

But where do they find a place? Sentimental as may be the average American concerning the Indian, it is demonstrated that in practical relationships his prejudices operate almost equally against the Redman and the Negro. In other words, the government has been preparing the Indian for assimilation into a white society that will not accept him. But whereas the Negro has been able to develop as a defense a group solidarity of his own, Indian groups are scattered and have as yet no background of common culture or experience on which to achieve protective unity. As a result the Indian outside his reservation today is usually to be found existing precariously

along the social and economic margins and in the disorganized areas of American life, looked down upon for not attaining in a group where he is not given the opportunity to attain. Many or most Indians prefer, when they can, to return to the reservation refuge or to join with their fellows in gypsy-like bands (called by the superior white man a reversion to the blanket) where alone they find some psychological satisfaction and integration for their lives.

This is the extreme instance, but the same processes are seen at work in many areas of alien settlement where native or part-native individuals and families who are severed from their indigenous groups live in more or less disorganized fashion. At least a partial explanation is thus afforded of what is undoubtedly the most significant cultural fact among indigenous peoples today, the urge toward maintaining native identity, one feature of which comprises the cultural national movements already referred to. We have seen that one school of colonial theory and practice considers this the wisest end and fashions its educational system accordingly. But far more powerful than such influence upon the children to the present has been the influence of natives and part-natives who have been thrown back upon their indigenous groups through economic needs and discriminatory experiences, or, more rarely, have returned to their people with an idea of serving and helping them. Becoming leaders and often what the government classes as "agitators" they are spreading a gospel, in forms variously healthy or otherwise, of self-respect and of the desire for recognition and autonomy that is seized on as avidly as were any mystical prophecies. Non-co-operation, boycott, revival of arts and crafts, political demonstrations, and the like are carried on with all the zeal with which warfare against encroachment was practiced by a previous generation. Even in areas which have not experienced the full pressure of transition, as the smaller Pacific islands, these new ideas and sentiments are filtering through the barriers of isolation and conservatism and meeting with enthusiastic if not very comprehending response. The embarrassment caused to governing authorities, the wholesale foisting of blame upon propagandists of communism, the measures taken variously to repress demonstrations and meet demands are well enough known to need no detailed exposition here; and over the

scene plays the searchlight of modern publicity, exposing all incidents and partisan personalities to the world, and making possible the bursts of emotion and criticism, from people often distant and usually uninformed, that are seriously complicating factors in dependency administration today.

If the world is now suffering the bitter consequences of economic inflation, it is certainly heading toward a cultural inflation at least potentially as serious—an overproduction of national aspirations. Ideally we might hope to circumvent this, to produce logical remedies in administrative practice and educational policy throughout dependent areas and among minority peoples, so that all these diverse human groups, large and small, can be controlled and guided in their struggle for a satisfactory existence in a world that no longer leaves them isolated. And that is what every governing authority is trying to do today; it explains the almost feverish anxiety with which colonial problems are being examined and discussed. But unless the dominant peoples can unbend in a way they show no signs of doing until forced by practical circumstances, and unless cultural-pathological manifestations are met with more effective remedies than reasoned arguments, legal phraseology, and military demonstrations, the cultural nationalism of the smaller groups is due to froth over with greater or less violence before reaching the level of readjustment at which their numerical size and position in the human perspective now causes us to place them.



## THE HYBRID IN HAWAII AS A MARGINAL MAN

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### ABSTRACT

Several factors conspire to make the hybrid in Hawaii occupy a position markedly different from that of the mixed-blood in other areas. The relative absence of race prejudice on the part of the Hawaiians has created an atmosphere which is favorable both to intermarriage and to persons of mixed blood. There are certain differences between the several groups. The Chinese-Hawaiian is, by consensus, a superior product and is accorded a high status. The Caucasian-Hawaiian is given a lower rating and consequently is more sensitive and self-conscious. There is a considerable group of multiple hybrids, the results of several crosses. These tend to form a group of their own since they cannot readily attach themselves to any of the pure-blood groups as do the dual hybrids. The mixed-bloods of all sorts are drawn together, and within this group there is little hesitancy with reference to intermarriage. This entire group mingles rather freely with the Hawaiians, but there is considerable social distance between them and the Nordics. The hybrid plays an important rôle in the life of Hawaii. As a participant in two or more cultures he acts as an intermediary and interpreter. The presence of a considerable number of hybrids has been responsible for the relative absence of race prejudice. The hybrids are increasing in numbers and in importance, and it is in the minds of these persons that the conflicts and fusions of culture are taking place. To understand fully the life of Hawaii, attention must be directed to this marginal group.

A study of the hybrids, or racial crosses, in the Hawaiian Islands is interesting because of the contact of so many racial and cultural groups. They constitute one of the major population groups of the Territory. According to the Census of 1930 there are 12,592 Asiatic-Hawaiians and 15,632 Caucasian-Hawaiians out of a total population of 368,336. In addition there are a number of Asiatic-Caucasians and other crosses distributed among the various ancestral groups.

The situation of the hybrids in Hawaii differs markedly from that of the Eurasian in India or the mulatto in continental United States. They are not all in the same situation, however, for there are certain differences in the treatment accorded the various crosses. In the main they are not sensitive as to their mixed ancestry. It is not at all unusual to hear someone say, "I am of mixed blood, and I am proud of it."

Several factors determine their status in Hawaii. For several centuries the Hawaiians had lived in isolation, which precluded the cultivation of prejudices. When Europeans began to make frequent

contacts with Hawaii in the late eighteenth century, they encountered no prejudices. The Hawaiians had no hesitancy about intermarrying with foreigners. In 1785 John Young, an English sailor, was detained in Hawaii. He married a woman of the royal family and became the grandfather of the famous Queen Emma of later history. King Kamehameha I gave his sister to be the wife of Isaac Davis, another English sailor. There was no opprobrium attached to these marriages, and the children came to be persons of prominence and distinction. They preach in the pulpits, teach in the schools, practice other professions, sit in the legislature, preside over the courts, administer the affairs of the city, represent the Territory in Washington, and otherwise rank well in the community. In this way the fact is advertised that there is no jeopardy in being a hybrid.

Another favorable circumstance was the modified feudal system of the Hawaiians under which the upper class could not marry those of the lower class: outside marriages were preferable to the selection of social inferiors.

This attitude of the Hawaiians toward intermarriage and the hybrids has created an atmosphere favorable to the entire group of cross-breeds. Race prejudice is relatively absent in Hawaii; hence there is practically no feeling against any person of mixed blood.

It is the consensus in Hawaii that the Chinese-Hawaiian is a superior product. This may almost be considered a religious creed to which all subscribe. Porteus and Babcock say of the Chinese that "their greatest contribution was the Chinese-Hawaiian sons they gave to the country."<sup>1</sup> Theodore Richards, a long-time resident in the Territory, wrote, "One of the finest race blends known is that of the Chinese and Hawaiian. . . . The result of this race mixture is attractive from every point of view."<sup>2</sup> The hybrids themselves speak with pride of their ancestry. The following statement from a college girl is typical of a large number. "I'm proud that I am of Chinese-Hawaiian parentage. On my father's side I inherit the culture of the Orient, while on my mother's side I possess the hospitality and sweet temperament of the Hawaiian as well as their love of music and beautiful things."

<sup>1</sup> *Temperament and Race*, p. 49.

<sup>2</sup> *Journal of Race Development*, II, 406.

The Chinese-Hawaiian stands out in striking contrast to the hybrid in many other situations. "The unfortunate cross-breed has come in for condemnation from all quarters. The favorite description is that the mongrel inherits the vices of both parents and the virtues of neither."<sup>3</sup> With such a stigma attached to himself, he has not been accepted and has acted accordingly. He has been given a bad name, and this has reacted upon his behavior. On the other hand, the Chinese-Hawaiian has been given a good name and has lived up to it. Probably the fact that he has been given a good name has done more to develop good qualities in him than his being good has been responsible for his good name. All groups in Hawaii have given this particular hybrid their stamp of approval.

The Chinese-Hawaiian usually moves freely in both parental groups. Both the Chinese and Hawaiians have a good rating in the community and several men are prominent in both groups. The Chinese came as plantation workers, but by dint of industry and frugality have moved into a position in the commercial life of the Territory second only to that of the Nordics. The Chinese have economic status. The Hawaiians early recognized their industriousness and a Chinese husband was considered a good prize in the matrimonial market. The Hawaiians, on the other hand, had political status. The Chinese, except for a few, could not participate politically. When a number of them could participate through their half-Hawaiian children, the hybrids came to be of value to them. Since both groups have a recognized status in the Territory, the cross-breed children are not sensitive as to either. So long as the whole community recognizes them and gives them status there is no inner conflict. A consideration of the Chinese-Hawaiian makes evident the fact that being a biological hybrid is not a serious matter unless it results in cultural hybridity. If they cannot adjust themselves to either cultural group, they have no definite behavior patterns to follow and their lives become disorganized.

From a study of a number of life-histories secured from hybrids in the high schools and colleges of Hawaii, it would appear that the Chinese Hawaiians are accepted more readily by the "Hawaiians" than by the "Chinese." On the other hand, the "Hawaiians" are

<sup>3</sup> J. G. Holland, *The Trend of the Race*, p. 230.

practically all his business dealings with the Chinese. Socially he mingles more freely with the Hawaiians. The latter seem to have less prejudice than any other population group in the Islands. A decreasing number of Chinese out-marriages with Hawaiians indicates that they prefer wives of their own race, if they are available. They are more partial to their own race than are the Hawaiians. In Honolulu a Chinese-Hawaiian had occupied a rather prominent position in the Hawaiian Chinese Civic Association. In 1928, when dissension developed within the organization, one of the members said that this man was not a Chinese and should not exercise so much influence in the group.

Popularly, the Caucasian-Hawaiian hybrids are given a lower rating. J. Luddell Kelly wrote that they "inherit very few of the virtues of their white parents."<sup>4</sup> They are considered less stable and industrious than the Chinese-Hawaiians. As yet we do not have sufficient evidence to prove that this is due to any biological inferiority. The Caucasian-Hawaiian is a man of "mixed mind" to a greater degree than the Chinese-Hawaiian. The Nordic claim to superiority does not permit the hybrid to be fully accepted; hence he becomes more self-conscious and sensitive like the Eurasian of India. The early American missionaries did not permit their children to associate freely with the Hawaiians; they placed a taboo on the use of the Hawaiian language until the children were twelve years old. This action, doubtless, had an effect upon intermarriage and the attitude toward hybrids. A white woman in Hawaii said:

I was raised in the South. If my old Negro mammy should come here I would hug and kiss her—but the Negro belongs in his place. I can't endure the Hawaiians. I go in swimming at the beach to cool off, but I begin to boil when I see how some of the white women act up with the Hawaiian men who take them out on surf boards. My boy has a Hawaiian friend in school. I try to appeal to his pride to induce him to choose another pal. I do not want any half-breed grandchildren; the mere thought of it makes me boil.

In the main the Caucasian-Hawaiians mingle more freely with the Hawaiians than with the Caucasians. Some, with a very slight admixture of Hawaiian blood, have tried to break into the white group but have not been accepted. A number of these have become

<sup>4</sup> *Westminster Review*, CLXXV (1911), 368.

"Haole-haters."<sup>5</sup> One Caucasian-Hawaiian who did not share this feeling said that the Hawaiian Civic Association was largely made up of "Haole-haters." The younger element among the Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians is developing a resentment against white domination and the attitude of superiority of the Nordics. A statement by a Caucasian-Hawaiian college girl is illuminating.

My father did not believe in a life of leisure. We had to do all our own work. It was very unpleasant, especially when the manager's children taunted us and looked down upon us as being mere workers. Of course I was then too young to understand, but there were some things which penetrated my childish mind and have remained with me ever since. Why look down upon American-Hawaiian children? Are they not as good as any other nationality? Perhaps they are and I still believe they are, but the white people on the plantation did not seem to think so. I suppose you will wonder why I have such an opinion.

Like any other child, I was fond of playing. Sometimes when I was lonely I would try to get acquainted with the white children next door. If their mother was not at home we would have a lovely time, but as soon as she would return she would call her children into the house and send me home. Her explanation was, "Of course, I can't allow my children to associate with those half-white children." Although I was only six years old, I despised the white people who treated me thus. My mother saw how lonely I was, so she sent me to school with my older sister.

Another excerpt from the same life-history reveals the conflict which developed.

As a small child I was very fond of music. My father once remarked as a joke that some day I was going to be a famous singer and then I could live with white people, far away in a place called the United States. Was I happy? No, secretly I brooded and pondered over this and fretted myself almost ill. One day I couldn't stand the strain another minute so I asked my mother if I had to be a singer whether I wanted to be one or not. She said, "Why of course not; it is up to you, what you want to be." I became happy again. Why worry? I needn't stay among white people. I was afraid that they would despise me.

The Portuguese in Hawaii are in a peculiar situation. They belong to the Caucasian race, but since they came to work on the sugar plantations they are accorded a status of inferiority. This they resent, and it reacts upon their behavior. Many are ashamed to be known as Portuguese. A number of Portuguese girls in Hawaii marry Nordic men. In many instances it is a desire to acquire a Nordic status that causes them to marry. In some cases the girls are attracted to the Nordics.

Anglo-Saxon name; Miller or Scott is preferable to DeSouza or Pereiro. In this way there is a chance of losing themselves in the dominant Nordic group. A hybrid with Portuguese blood often hesitates to mention this part of his ancestry.<sup>6</sup> A Portuguese-Hawaiian, even though he may be predominantly Portuguese, almost invariably classes himself as Hawaiian. A few years ago a young man with Portuguese name and Portuguese features was asked to represent this group at a function sponsored by the governor. He replied, "I am not Portuguese; I am Hawaiian." The Hawaiians manifest less feeling against the Portuguese than against the Nordics; hence the Portuguese-Hawaiian can adjust himself to the Hawaiian group with considerable ease. If, however, a Portuguese hybrid can lose himself in the group of north-European ancestry, he will do so without hesitation.

Very few Japanese in Hawaii have married out. They brought a large number of women from Japan and were fairly well supplied with wives of their own kind. As a result there are comparatively few hybrids with Japanese blood. Life-histories from this group reveal attitudes markedly different from those of the Chinese-Hawaiian crosses. They are more hesitant in telling of their ancestry. In some documents they do not tell outright, but certain statements are unmistakable evidence to anyone familiar with the Hawaiian situation. It appears that, in the main, they prefer to be considered Japanese. The Japanese consider themselves a superior group; consequently the hybrids feel sensitive about the other strain.<sup>7</sup> This

<sup>6</sup> A high-school girl wrote that she was part Hawaiian. She did not tell the ancestry of the "part," but her name was distinctly Portuguese. This indicates that her father was Portuguese.

<sup>7</sup> In Los Angeles, California, a Japanese married a Mexican wife by whom he had a son. When the boy was five years old his mother died and his father married a Japanese. The stepmother did not like the half-breed child and treated him very harshly. Because of this treatment the boy ran away from home and got into trouble so that he was committed to the state school. He was not accepted by the Japanese boys of his age; some of them called him "half-breed." He would not associate with Mexican boys. As a consequence he associated with Japanese boys much younger than himself. Since he had no status among the boys of his own age he compensated by domineering over these younger boys. He spoke Japanese but was not at all interested in Spanish. Japanese communities in California control their children remarkably well. They do not want them to behave in such a way as to bring discredit upon their group, but they did not seem to feel the same responsibility for this half-breed boy. Probably the fact that his features were more Mexican than Japanese was an important factor in the situation. He wanted to be a Japanese but was not permitted to be one.

feeling of superiority affects the hybrids. They are not accepted fully by the Japanese, but like many other crosses they are received by the Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian group. A Japanese-Hawaiian high-school boy spoke of "we Hawaiians." He wrote, "I for one am not a full-blooded Hawaiian, but a tinge of Japanese blood mingles with the rest." In all probability this "tinge" was one-half. The Japanese have not been in the Territory long enough to have several generations of crosses and back-crosses. This boy had probably experienced differential treatment on the part of the two groups and felt more closely drawn toward the Hawaiians.

There is a considerable group of multiple hybrids in Hawaii—those with three to six strains. This results from the intermarriage of the several crosses. The triple hybrid, Chinese-Hawaiian-Caucasian, is rather common. There are other crosses such as Hawaiian-Chinese-Negro, Hawaiian-Portuguese-Tahitian-Nordic, Hawaiian-Indian-Japanese, Chinese-Hawaiian-Tahitian-Nordic. In addition, there are several crosses within the Caucasian group. A high-school boy wrote that his father was Chinese-Hawaiian and his mother had Hawaiian, American, English, Scotch, and Irish blood. These multiple hybrids are in a situation which differs markedly from that of the dual hybrids. They cannot very well attach themselves to any of the pure-blood groups, except where there may be a preponderance of a particular strain. They tend to form a group by themselves, or mingle more freely with the part-Hawaiians of all shades and mixtures. A college girl whose father was Hawaiian-Chinese and whose mother was German wrote:

Like many of the other young people of Hawaii I am in a very peculiar situation. In me are bloods of the Hawaiian, Chinese, and German races; yet I have never felt as if I belonged to any one group. We who are so unfortunately placed learn to adjust ourselves. I do not care for any group especially, though I am not prejudiced against any. To prove this I might say that my friends are numbered among those of different racial groups. I do not have any ideas on the customs or practices of any one group perhaps because I never felt as if I belonged to any. I have always felt more at home among people in the same position with me. We have had clubs, groups or sets or whatever they be may called, and we have worked as happy contented groups. There have been many few Hawaiians and many few Chinese and many few Germans in the same group and no over bearing. The girls especially have been more so than the boys. Perhaps it is unfair to all Hawaiians, but nearly all our youth of different races hold that most Hawaiians are grasping and snobbish and that we are not of "their kind."

The hybrids of all sorts form a group to themselves. They hesitate very little about crossing the various ancestral lines in connection with marriage. A college girl whose father was Indian-Irish-Jewish-English and whose mother was pure Hawaiian married a man of German-Irish descent. There seems to be a tendency for all of these mixed groups to draw closer to the Hawaiians than to any other population group in the Territory; the Hawaiians form a sort of magnetic core which attracts all the hybrid varieties. A quintuple hybrid wrote:

I am proud of the fact that my parents are of Hawaiian ancestry.

A college girl wrote:

I have the blood of many races in my veins. I am proud that I have Indian blood in my veins. I am very proud of my Hawaiian blood.

A sextuple hybrid wrote that he was proud of the Hawaiians. He stated:

My father is part-Chinese and I am not and will never feel sorry for being part-Chinese. Why should I when God created all men equal?

While the multiple hybrids mingle freely with the Hawaiians, there is considerable social distance between them and those of north-European ancestry. Many of them resent bitterly the attitude of superiority on the part of the white group. A quintuple hybrid girl wrote:

Why should color lines be drawn between the language groups? Are we not all human beings? God put us all into the world for a purpose and to be of some use. Are we not all Americans seeking for the same goal? The white people have been the very ones to draw the color line. I have felt this barrier many times in my life. Why do the white people have private schools for their children? Most likely your answer will be, "To protect our child from speaking incorrect English." Is not this drawing the color line? How can other nationalities learn to speak English correctly if they do not come in contact with English-speaking children? To create a harmonious atmosphere between the whites and other nationalities is to allow them to mingle with each other. Some people despise the people of color. Why? Because they think that God made them to live and eat while the poor colored people were made to slave for them. All the different nationalities can work in harmony, but the whites cannot. Maybe if they would come down from their "high horses," the world could be working in harmony.

The central position of the Hawaiian is also shown by the back-crosses, where the hybrids marry back into the parental groups.



Where they have Hawaiian blood they marry back into that group more freely than into any other parental groups.

The hybrid has played and will play an important rôle in the life of Hawaii. He is a marginal man, a participant in two or more cultures, and in that capacity he acts as an intermediary. He is an interpreter, for he knows the things and the persons of the several groups concerned. Several Caucasian-Hawaiians are prominent leaders in the Territory, and they represent not only the two groups from which they have their origin but other groups as well. At the Territorial Normal School in Honolulu practically all the student-body offices are held by mixed-bloods. If a Chinese-Hawaiian-Caucasian is president of the students' association, all three groups consider themselves represented. Furthermore, the other groups, such as the Japanese and Portuguese, will be more likely to give their support to such a cosmopolite than to a pure-blood representative of any one group. Some Japanese would hesitate in supporting a Chinese, and many Portuguese would draw the line against a Japanese.

In all probability, the presence of a considerable group of hybrids in Hawaii has been an important factor in developing a situation where race prejudice is practically absent. In the process of fusion, some of the characteristic physical features have been rubbed off; hence, they cannot be classified so readily. Had there been only two population groups in Hawaii, it would have been easy for the dominant group to focus attention upon the other and develop antipathies, but it is more difficult to direct an attack against several pure groups and the great variety of hybrids at the same time. According to Raymond K. Oshimo, a Hawaiian-born Japanese,

The fact that these mixed people belong to the colored races who are looked upon as inferior races, has inclined them to safeguard themselves by upholding the equality of all races. To admit that the yellow race was inferior was to consent to their own inferiority; thus they have been jealous in maintaining race equality. This, then, to a very great extent explains why we have so little race antagonism in Hawaii. The prejudice against the Japanese would have been much more severe had it not been for this fact.<sup>8</sup>

For some time to come the hybrids will form an intermediate class in Hawaii. They represent the groups in the center of the racial

<sup>8</sup> Master of Arts Thesis, University of Chicago, 1926.

the most important population group in the Territory. According to Dr. Romanzo Adams, of the University of Hawaii,

About seven per cent of the present population of Hawaii is part-Hawaiian. Assuming equal fertility, about seventeen per cent of the offspring of the marriages of the four years, 1920-1924, will be part Hawaiian and about twenty-five per cent of all children will be of mixed race. Apparently the amalgamation of the races in Hawaii is destined to go on at an accelerated pace.<sup>9</sup>

On the basis of later calculations Dr. Adams wrote in another connection that "the highest rate of gain by excess of births over deaths has been by the part-Hawaiians."<sup>10</sup>

The pure Hawaiian group is slowly decreasing, but it is diffusing its blood more widely throughout the general population. The pure Portuguese group is also gradually disappearing through amalgamation, mainly with the other Caucasians. The Portuguese, on account of their advent to the Islands as plantation workers, have been accorded an inferior status, but as their blood comes to be more widely diffused through the other Caucasian groups this line of cleavage will gradually disappear. As the lines of demarcation between the various races are gradually eliminated through the process of amalgamation, the physical marks, which have served as badges of identification and bases of discrimination, will gradually disappear.

The intermediate group, constituted of all sorts of cultural hybrids, is developing a culture which is different from that of any single ancestral group. In this marginal group at present conflicts and fusions of culture are taking place. To understand fully what is going on in the life of Hawaii attention must be directed to the acculturation process as it is operating in the minds of the hybrids who at present are on the cultural margins.

<sup>9</sup> *The Peoples of Hawaii* (Honolulu, 1925), p. 20.

<sup>10</sup> *Pacific Affairs* (October, 1929), p. 625.

# THE FACTOR OF AGE IN MARRIAGE

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## ABSTRACT

Age at marriage is a convenient starting point in studying both the static and the dynamic aspects of a human population. The predominating age at which persons of each sex enter into marriage is a highly important factor in determining the potential natural increase of the population. The marital behavior pattern of a rural population group is distinctive in that the bulk of all marriages occur from two to three years earlier than is true for city populations. Subjectively, it may seem desirable to set up certain age relationships between husband and wife, but objectively it is difficult to defend any age relationship that does not appear as a predominating tendency in the actual behavior of the group. The cultural heritage of a group probably determines more than anything else what its marital standards regarding age will be.

## I

The keenness of present-day interest in all phases of population and family problems both in the scientific and in the so-called practical fields justifies a detailed study of the age factor in marriage. Age at marriage serves as a point of departure in studying both the static and the dynamic aspects of population. Also, it is probably true that the predominant tendencies regarding age at marriage within a given population reflect to some extent the presence of cultural, geographic, and even other influences in the environment which are not of purely demographic origin. But in the study at hand the primary interest is in the phenomenon of age itself as related to the two sexes at the time of marriage. Whatever may determine age at marriage and the results that may attend it are of secondary interest for the time being.

The work of collecting the data for this study was begun during the academic year 1931-32. During that year several preliminary classifications were made for the purpose of determining the best possible modes of attack that could be followed. The data have been

<sup>\*</sup> Formerly graduate student assistants in the Department of Agricultural Economics, and members of the graduate seminar in rural sociology.

secured from the marriage record books in the office of the Court Clerk at Stillwater, Oklahoma, and cover all marriage licenses issued in Payne County between January 1, 1895, and December 31, 1932. A few of these records were not usable because of omissions of age for either the male or the female or both. In some instances, the word "legal" was given for age. The study is based upon 10,465 marriage license records which were fully intelligible.<sup>2</sup>

There are two sources of possible error in this study for which no precautionary measures have been taken. The first of these is that introduced by time. A period of thirty-eight years is relatively long in a state as new as Oklahoma and, no doubt, the habits and customs of the people have changed much during that time. Furthermore, if the business cycle exerts any noticeable effects upon the age at which marriages are made, it seems likely that there may be trends perceptible in these data which have been ignored. But any single year would not afford a reliable sample from a population group so small as that from which these records were taken. The second source of error is one which is common to practically all studies based upon public documents. There is no possibility of guarding against the factor of falsification, and in marriage there are many reasons why the ages given might be entered falsely. In a later study, the time element will be considered, but no method is apparent by which the influence of perjury can be eliminated.

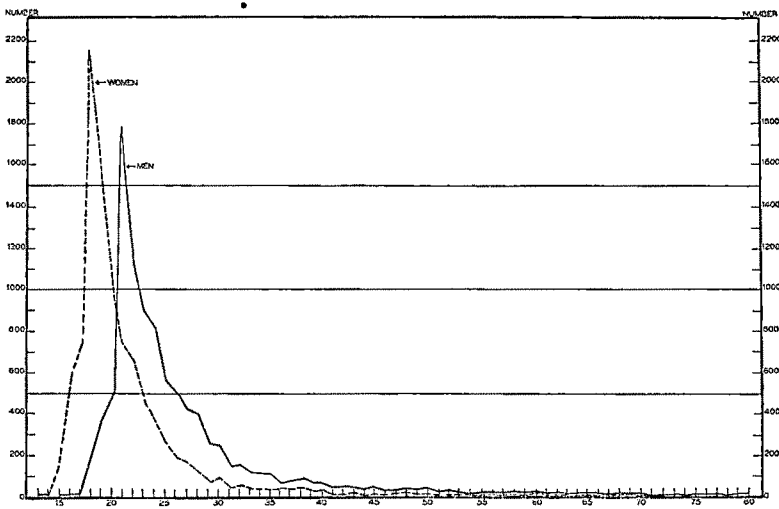
## II

The total number of marriage licenses for which ages of both bride and groom were secured for use in this study is 10,465. The ages of the men ranged from fifteen to eighty-six years, but after the age of

<sup>2</sup> While this study was in progress, Dr. James H. S. Bossard published the results of one quite similar in many respects. (See his paper, "The Age Factor in Marriage: A Philadelphia Study, 1931," *American Journal of Sociology*, XXXVIII (1933), 536-49.) His data were for the population of a large urban center and covered only one year, while those used here are for a predominantly agricultural and small-town population and extend over a period of thirty-eight years. When Dr. Bossard's paper appeared, we decided to complete our study in two parts, one of which would tend to supplement his and show for a rural area what he has shown for a large city, and the other to be carried out according to the original plan. We desire, therefore, to give him full credit for the plan which has been followed in order that our results may be comparable with his to the greatest extent possible.

seventy-seven years there was little continuity in the ages of these men, probably because of the scarcity of individuals marrying in extreme old age. The ages of the women ranged from thirteen to eighty-five years, but did not run continuously after the age of seventy-six years was passed. Of course this does not establish the upper and the lower limits within which human marriage is possible,

CHART I



DISTRIBUTION BY AGES OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF MEN AND WOMEN  
MARRIED FROM 1895 TO 1932

but it probably does suggest the maximum limits within which marriage is feasible either biologically or economically.

In Chart I a simple frequency distribution is given for both men and women marrying at each age consecutively from thirteen to seventy-nine and for those eighty years of age and over.<sup>3</sup> This chart has two distinct characteristics. First, it shows that there is a lag of about three years in the ages at which men marry in comparison with that for women up to approximately the age of thirty years.

<sup>3</sup>The data have been tabulated so as to show both the actual numbers of persons marrying at each age and the corresponding percentages of the total. Because of the length of this table, it does not seem practicable to show it. Furthermore, the data are shown by three-year intervals in Table I.

After that age there is a greater degree of coincidence in the ages of the two sexes at marriage. Second, the chart shows that up to the age of twenty years the number of women marrying greatly exceeds

TABLE I  
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN MARRYING, GROUPED  
BY THREE-YEAR PERIODS

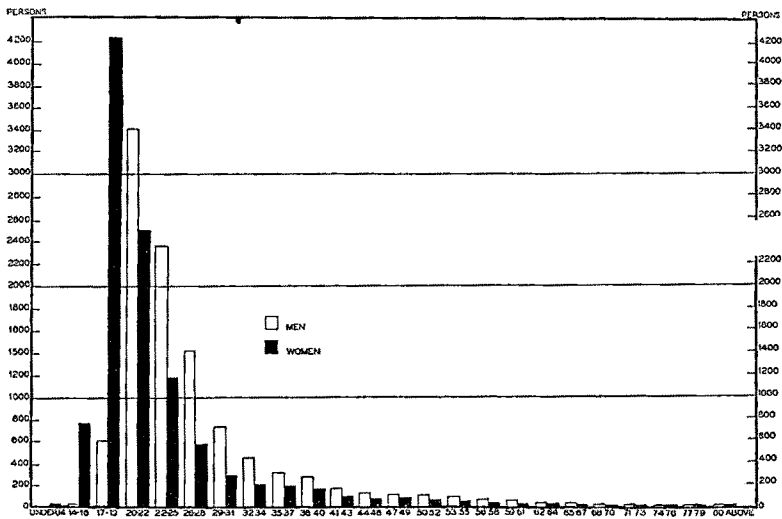
AGE PERIOD	MEN		WOMEN	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Under 14.....			1	
14-16.....	2		777	7.4
17-19.....	581	5.6	4,223	40.3
20-22.....	3,409	32.6	2,464	23.5
23-25.....	2,358	22.5	1,157	11.1
26-28.....	1,401	13.4	559	5.3
29-31.....	726	6.9	277	2.6
32-34.....	457	4.4	195	1.8
35-37.....	315	3.0	185	1.8
38-40.....	273	2.6	165	1.6
41-43.....	175	1.7	88	.8
44-46.....	130	1.2	74	.7
47-49.....	135	1.3	78	.8
50-52.....	119	1.1	54	.5
53-55.....	88	.8	49	.5
56-58.....	75	.7	33	.3
59-61.....	62	.6	30	.3
62-64.....	41	.4	16	.2
65-67.....	38	.4	18	.2
68-70.....	28	.3	5	.1
71-73.....	16	.2	7	.1
74-76.....	14	.1	7	.1
77-79.....	12	.1	2	
80 and over.....	10	.1	1	
Totals.....	10,465	100.0	10,465	100.0

that of men, but beginning at the age of twenty-one the number of men marrying at each specified age is much greater than that of women at the corresponding age. In most cases the number of men marrying at ages beyond twenty-one years is at least double that of women, both absolutely and relatively.

In Table I the data are presented in a more compact form than

that from which Chart I was constructed. From these figures it may be seen that the modal age period at which men married is from twenty to twenty-two years, while that for women is from seventeen to nineteen years. Going back to Chart I it will be observed that the single age at which men married in greatest frequency is twenty-one years, while the corresponding age for women is eighteen years.

CHART II



DISTRIBUTION OF MEN AND WOMEN MARRIED FROM 1895 TO 1932  
GROUPED BY THREE-YEAR PERIODS

In Bossard's study,<sup>4</sup> which represents a strictly urban population, the modal marriage age period for men was from twenty-three to twenty-five years while that of women was from twenty to twenty-two years. In that study the single age of maximum frequency of marriage was twenty-two years for men and twenty-one years for women, but the decline from the maximum was neither so rapid nor so great for the next few years as seems to be true in our study. The age comparisons are given for the Oklahoma data in Chart II.

In order that what has been said regarding the age distribution of men and women at marriage may be clear, the following table is presented:

<sup>4</sup>See JOURNAL OF DEMOGRAPHY, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 50-51.

This is sufficient to show that by far the greater number of all marriages for both men and women occur in the early twenties or even before. However, the proportion of all wives who were twenty-two years of age or below at the time of marriage is almost double that of husbands within the same age limits. In the study by Bos-sard, only 62.2 per cent of the husbands and 82.1 per cent of the wives married at the age of twenty-eight or earlier, while in this study the corresponding figures for the same age limits are 74.1 per cent of the husbands and 87.7 per cent for the wives. This shows concretely the contrast in age at marriage between rural and urban

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION BY AGE AT MARRIAGE OF MEN AND  
WOMEN MARRIED IN PAYNE COUNTY,  
OKLAHOMA, FROM 1895 TO 1932

AGE AT MARRIAGE	CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MARRIAGES	
	Males	Females
Below 20.....	5.6	47.8
22 or below.....	38.2	71.3
25 or below.....	60.7	82.4
28 or below.....	74.1	87.7

populations for each sex. In other words, the differences in age at marriage between urban and rural people of the same sex seem to be about the same as those between the two sexes in the rural population, with the rural population marrying earlier than the urban by about three years.<sup>5</sup>

For most population groups, it is considered usual that men marry women who are younger than themselves. In the United States the

<sup>5</sup> Some readers may be inclined to question the value of these comparisons because of the time element involved in the Oklahoma study, upon the ground that thirty years ago marriages took place much earlier than is common now. However, an unpublished study by O. D. Duncan and J. T. Sanders on this point shows that this was not altogether true in Oklahoma, at least prior to the depression. Among 1,362 farm families in Oklahoma which were studied in 1926, the mean age of fathers at marriage was 23.6 years, and that of sons was 21.4 years, while the mean age for mothers at marriage was 19.5 years and that of their daughters was 18.9 years.



average difference in age between husband and wife is probably in the neighborhood of three years in round numbers. Extreme varia-

TABLE III  
TOTAL NUMBER OF MARRIAGES SHOWING DIFFERENCES OF AGE BETWEEN  
MEN AND WOMEN AT MARRIAGE  
(Numbers and percentages)

OLDER BY YEARS	MEN		WOMEN	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1.....	909	8.7	289	2.8
2.....	1,087	10.4	177	1.7
3.....	1,436	13.7	95	.9
4.....	1,124	10.7	65	.6
5.....	833	7.9	43	.4
6.....	751	7.2	24	.2
7.....	523	5.0	18	.2
8.....	434	4.1	10	.1
9.....	342	3.3	6	
10.....	334	3.2	11	
11.....	209	2.0	3	
12.....	168	1.6	5	
13.....	148	1.4	2	
14.....	113	1.1	3	
15.....	105	1.0	3	.4
16.....	70	.7		
17.....	67	.6	1	
18.....	34	.3		
19.....	42	.4	3	
20.....	40	.4	1	
21.....	37	.3	1	
22.....	26	.2		
23.....	20	.2		
24.....	17	.2		
25.....	17	.2		
26.....	11	.1		
27.....	16	.2		
28 and older.....	57	.6		
Men older.....	8,970	85.7		
Women older.....			760	7.3
Same age.....	735	7.0		
Total same age and men older.....	9,705	92.7	9,705	92.7
Total.....			10,465	100.0

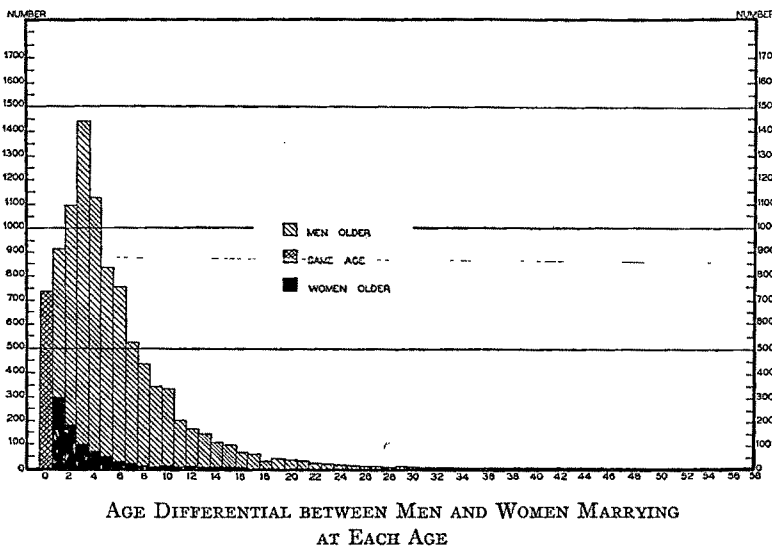
tions from that average in either direction are not very common, and

are not given by single years in the

table since the age difference is given by single years only in

twenty-one where the wife's age exceeds that of the husband and up to twenty-seven where the husband's age exceeds that of the wife. There were no women who were more than twenty-one years older than their husbands. Although there were two men who were fifty-seven years older than their wives, the number of men whose ages exceeded the ages of their wives by twenty-eight years or more is not statistically significant when shown separately. Out of the total of 10,465 marriages, there were 735, or 7.0 per cent, of the

CHART III



cases in which the husbands and wives were the same age. In 760 cases, or 7.3 per cent, wives were older than their husbands, and in 8,970 cases, or 85.7 per cent of the total, husbands were older than their wives.

As can be seen by a further observation of Table III and Chart III, 2.8 per cent of the total women were only one year older and 1.7 per cent of the women were two years older than their husbands. Although one woman was twenty-one years older than her mate, the statistical significance of the number of women who are more than four years older than the men they married rapidly dwindles to practically nothing.

Among the persons included in Bossard's study, 10.5 per cent of the husbands and wives were the same age, 10.1 per cent of the wives were older than their husbands, and 79.4 per cent of the husbands were older than their wives. Also, the maximum excess of husbands' ages over those of wives was thirty-eight years and the maximum excess of wives' ages over those of husbands was twenty-nine years compared with fifty-seven and twenty-one years respectively in the Oklahoma population studied. In comparing the two samples, there was a wider range of variation in the excess of the age of husbands over wives by nineteen years in the Oklahoma group than among the Philadelphia husbands, but among those wives who were older than their husbands, the excess was eight years greater for the Philadelphia than for the Oklahoma women. In spite of the greater differences between the ages of husbands and wives in Oklahoma than in Philadelphia, the Oklahoma husbands whose ages exceeded those of their wives by eight years or less comprised 67.8 per cent of all husbands, while in Philadelphia the corresponding group included 66.9 per cent of all husbands. In Philadelphia 6 per cent of the women in Bossard's sample were older than their husbands by two years or less, and only 4.5 per cent of the women included in our study fell into this category. From these comparisons it is apparent that there is a higher correlation between the ages of husbands and wives in the city than in the country population. In most of the Oklahoma cases for which the husband was older than the wife, the differential was seven years or less. In the case of wives older than husbands, the difference was two years or less in the majority of the cases. Considering the width of the extreme variations in proportion to their scarcity, it seems reasonable to say exotic marriages are not statistically or even sociologically important when age is the principal point of comparison.

The variations in the age differentials between husband and wives are shown in their true meaning when the average ages of persons of each sex are compared with mates of designated ages as is done in Table IV and Chart IV. The only group of women whose mean ages were greater than the age of their husbands were those who married men whose mean ages were 20 years or less. The mean age of the husbands of these women was only 16.

those men marrying women sixty-eight years of age or older. The number of cases in which the mean ages of men marrying women of

TABLE IV  
MEAN AGE OF MEN AND WOMEN AT MARRIAGE BY DESIGNATED YEARS

Designated Age	Mean Age of Women Marrying Men	Mean Age of Men Marrying Women	Designated Age	Mean Age of Women Marrying Men	Mean Age of Men Marrying Women
13.....		22.0	46	36.1	50.0
14.....		24.7	47	35.6	53.6
15.....	15.0	22.4	48	35.0	54.5
16.....	17.0	22.6	49	37.8	57.4
17.....	21.0	22.9	50	38.9	56.6
18.....	17.5	23.0	51	40.0	61.2
19.....	18.0	23.9	52	40.9	58.3
20.....	18.3	24.3	53	38.7	57.0
21.....	18.7	24.9	54	44.1	58.7
22.....	19.2	25.8	55	41.0	60.5
23.....	20.3	27.7	56	41.7	61.2
24.....	19.6	28.0	57	43.9	65.3
25.....	20.8	29.5	58	45.9	63.6
26.....	21.1	29.9	59	46.4	65.8
27.....	21.3	31.1	60	49.3	62.7
28.....	22.0	33.0	61	48.7	62.5
29.....	22.3	33.2	62	52.0	66.5
30.....	22.7	34.8	63	46.9	65.9
31.....	23.6	37.0	64	54.1	72.0
32.....	24.0	36.0	65	50.4	72.8
33.....	24.9	38.6	66	54.8	73.0
34.....	24.9	36.3	67	63.3	70.3
35.....	25.7	41.3	68	53.3	64.7
36.....	26.4	42.3	69	45.3	70.0
37.....	27.0	43.5	70	60.5	70.0
38.....	28.2	42.2	71	61.6	77.5
39.....	28.4	43.9	72	63.1	72.0
40.....	29.9	46.0	73	57.3	68.0
41.....	30.4	46.5	74	65.7	75.3
42.....	32.2	45.5	75	61.3	73.5
43.....	30.7	49.7	76	47.8	70.0
44.....	30.4	52.1	77 and over*	63.0	82.7
45.....	34.9	51.2			

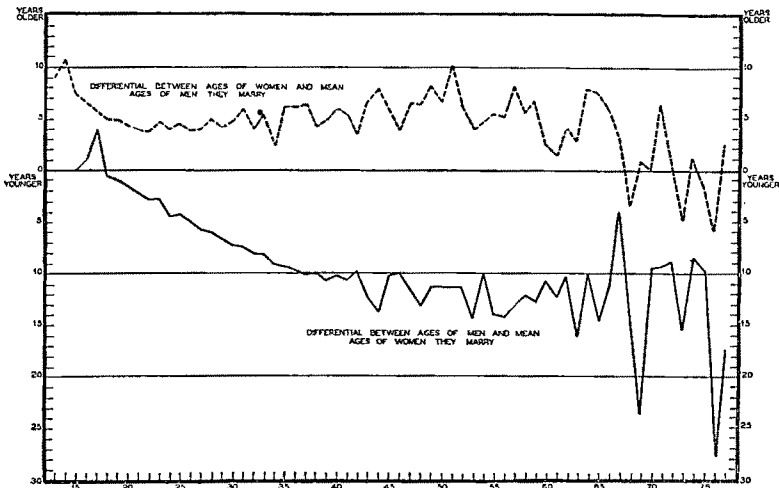
\* Average age of men 77 and over=80.3. Average age of women 77 and over=80.3.

specified age were ten years or more above that of their wives was too small for reference to be made to it.

In conformity with expectations, the bulk of all marriages included in the sample took place during the period of the early twenties or even earlier in the case of females. As was shown above,

the proportion of females, who married at age twenty-two or below was almost double that of males who married below the same upper age limit when each sex is taken separately. When a cross-tabula-

CHART IV



DIFFERENTIALS BETWEEN AGES OF MEN AND WOMEN AND THE MEAN AGES OF PERSONS THEY MARRIED SHOWN FOR EACH SEX AND EACH AGE UP TO 76 YEARS

TABLE V

PROPORTIONS OF MARRIAGES FOR AGE LIMITS AT MARRIAGE APPLICABLE TO BOTH HUSBAND AND WIFE

Age of Both Husband and Wife	Percentage (cumulative)
20 years or under.....	9.3
21 years or under.....	25.4
22 years or under.....	36.4
23 years or under.....	45.5
24 years or under.....	53.6
25 years or under.....	59.4
26 years or under.....	64.6

tion of the ages of husbands and wives at the time of marriage was made the same tendency appeared. In both cases, the proportion of marriages in which the ages of both husbands and wives were within specified age maxima were as given in Table V.

In other words, it may be seen that the majority of all marriages took place while both the husband and the wife were twenty-four years of age or younger. In Bossard's study the majority of all marriages was found to fall in the twenty-sixth rather than in the twenty-fourth year.<sup>6</sup>

The five age combinations shown in Table VI included 1,708 or 16.3 per cent of the total 10,465 cases studied. In Bossard's study, the five largest age combinations included only 12.7 per cent of his entire sample, and there is little similarity between the largest combinations in the two samples. This seems to indicate that in a rural population there is a much greater tendency for marriages to be

TABLE VI  
FIVE MOST FREQUENT AGE COMBINATIONS OF  
GROOMS AND BRIDES AT MARRIAGE

Age Combination	Number	Per Cent
Male 21 and female 18.....	662	6.3
Male 22 and female 18.....	331	3.2
Male 21 and female 19.....	325	3.1
Male 23 and female 18.....	202	1.9
Male 22 and female 19.....	188	1.8

"bunched" within the earlier ages of adult life than is true of an urban population. Also it will be observed that within these most frequent age combinations, the age differential is from two to five years, but the most common difference between the ages of husband and wife seems to be around three years. In Bossard's study on this point the spread between the ages of husband and wife was from two to three years, which probably means a greater uniformity on the whole between the ages of husbands and wives in urban than in agricultural communities.

<sup>6</sup> It has been suggested to the writers that the tendency of the Oklahoma population to marry earlier than that of Philadelphia was due to differences in geographical and climatic conditions. This is a debatable question, but it must also include the factors of race, national origin, economic status, and many cultural conditions. In the final analysis it is doubtful if all the contributory influences could be segregated, and it would inevitably introduce many arguments not germane to the point in this discussion. The writers of this paper are content to have the differences explained as being resultants of urbanization and ruralization of the population.

The fifteen most frequent differentials between the ages of husbands and wives are shown in Table VII. In approximately one-third, 31.1 per cent, of all marriages the husbands' ages were from two to four years greater than those of the wives. Also in more than half, 52.5 per cent, of all the records studied the husbands' ages exceeded those of the wives by from one to six years. While in 4.5 per cent of all cases the ages of wives exceeded those of husbands by one or two years. It is noticeable that, according to comparisons of

TABLE VII  
AGE DIFFERENTIALS IN ORDER OF THEIR FREQUENCY  
(FIFTEEN OCCURRING MOST FREQUENTLY)

Age Disparity	Number	Percentage of Total Class
Men 3 years older.....	1,436	13.7
Men 4 years older.....	1,124	10.7
Men 2 years older.....	1,087	10.4
Men 1 year older.....	909	8.7
Men 5 years older.....	833	8.0
Men 6 years older.....	751	7.2
Same age.....	735	7.0
Men 7 years older.....	523	5.0
Men 8 years older.....	434	4.2
Men 9 years older.....	342	3.3
Men 10 years older.....	334	3.2
Women 1 year older.....	289	2.8
Men 11 years older.....	209	2.0
Women 2 years older.....	177	1.7
Men 12 years older.....	168	1.6

these data with those employed by Bossard, there is a much greater tendency for urban wives to be either the same age as their husbands or even older than is true of rural wives. Perhaps the explanation of this lies in an inclination of rural marriages to be governed to a greater extent by custom or tradition than is true for city marriages. The tendency of rural women to marry earlier than city women is, in all probability, an important factor in causing the gross fertility of farm families to be higher than that of city families. Both males and females seem to marry earlier in rural than in urban areas. This may affect the population rates in two ways: (1) the actual child-bearing period of rural wives is longer than that of city wives, and (2) a larger percentage of rural women are married during the period of

their lives when conception is most likely and usually most frequent than is true for urban wives.

While this study has not been addressed to the task of explaining cause-effect relationships associated with the age of the population at marriage, it probably will be not beside the point to suggest some of the more obvious problems and inferences involved.

In a predominantly agricultural population, such as exists in Oklahoma, early marriage has several advantages for the members of the society. First, agriculture is primarily a family enterprise, both economically and sociologically. The farm is to a great extent a self-sufficing unit, and division of labor in farming is more largely within the individual farm unit than is true for the city household. Second, the farm under usual conditions is somewhat isolated geographically, and marriage affords a psycho-social relationship which in a large way mitigates the geographic isolation of the farm. Furthermore, the farm itself provides an atmosphere of growth, generation, production, and reproduction which, no doubt, stimulates and accentuates the familistic desires of the farm population. Third, the relatively large investment, in proportion to returns, necessary in agriculture makes an early start imperative and "bachelor farming" is irksome. And, fourth, agricultural societies favor early marriage by custom. In purely rural communities a person who remains unmarried beyond the usual age at marriage becomes more or less conspicuous and ill at ease among his fellows. In other words, marriage for rural people is rather highly scrutinized by the group, whereas in the city there is somewhat less interference in the affairs of individuals on the part of the group.



## FOLK RATIONALIZATIONS IN THE "UNWRITTEN LAW"

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### ABSTRACT

The conflict between folk ways and state ways in the "unwritten law defense" clearly shows opposing folk and legal rationalizations. In the effort to preserve for the aggrieved individual the right of private vengeance, the folk has opposed the concept of the sanctity of human life with the concept of the inviolability of the home, the property concept of marriage, and the concept of the husband's sovereignty. To the folk doctrine of justifiable homicide the law opposes the cold-blooded doctrine of agency. This legal doctrine has given way before the folk view at three points: (1) by an abrogation of the paramour's common law right of self-defense, (2) by statutory enactments which place justifiable homicide under the rule of "reason and justice," (3) and by its enactment into law. Moreover, juries continue to free those who slay "in defense of the home" by substituting folk rationalizations for the law of the land.

Society governs and the state governs. Each has developed the rationalization of its controls, society in its mores, the state in law. The machinery of administration belongs to the state, and this machinery is applied to the enforcing of law. The mores are a phenomenon of society, not of the state, and their administration presents peculiar difficulty. Strictly speaking the mores are not administered.<sup>1</sup> The rationalizations behind the folk ways are no more than that current coin, the everyday notions of the common, ordinary man in the primary group. The rationalizations of state ways are elaborate, involved, embodied in legal codes, made consistent by argument from precedent to precedent, and buttressed by machinery of administration. Nevertheless when they conflict, folk ways often vanquish state ways. This paper selects one important point of conflict, the so-called unwritten law, from which to trace the divergent threads of folk and legal rationalizations.

How have these rationalizations arisen? We know that through long periods of social evolution the notion of sanctity or inviolability has been attached to certain concepts. The sanctity of property, the

<sup>1</sup> It is hardly necessary to footnote Sumner's *Folkways* and Giddings' *Civilization and Society*, chap. v, in this connection.

sanctity of human life, the inviolability of contract may serve as examples of such concepts. Rationalization we shall regard as the logical process whereby particular acts are either referred to or excluded from the domain of one of these major concepts. When folk ways and state ways coincide, as fortunately they often do, there arise no discrepancies to confound sociology and jurisprudence. But in that twilight zone where they conflict, legal rationalizations run counter to folk rationalization and written law contends with "unwritten law."<sup>2</sup> To one such code of what is "decent behavior" in the sight of the local, provincial, or regional community has been assigned the term "the unwritten law."

The unwritten law defense appears to be society's lingering effort to save to its members from the encroaching domain of law some vestige of the right of private vengeance. So the definitions indicate. The unwritten law according to Bouvier's *Law Dictionary* is "a popular expression to designate a supposed rule of law that a man who takes the life of the wife's paramour or daughter's seducer is not guilty of a criminal offense." Blackstone's *Law Dictionary* comes nearer sociological content when it defines unwritten law as a "term . . . popularly and falsely applied to a supposed local principle or sentiment which justifies private vengeance particularly the slaying of a man who has insulted a woman, when perpetrated by her kinsman or husband."

It remains to be shown that the unwritten law defense for murder by operating within the legal process contravenes but does not defy law. This may be shown by a threefold comparison of gang murders, lynchings, and the freeing of those guilty of homicide under this principle. Gang murderers conspire for private vengeance, operate in secret, evade and defy the law, and outrage the mores of the community in the process. Men bent on lynchings in our southern states operate in public for both private and public vengeance, openly defy both the law and its representatives, but conform to the demands of the folk ways. Because of the strength of these folk ways, lynchers are rarely brought to trial even when known to the community.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup> Howard W. Odum, "Lynchings, Fears and Folkways," *The Nation*, CXXXIII (1931), 719-20.

<sup>3</sup> Southern Commission in the study of *Lynchings and What They Mean* (Atlanta, 1931), pp. 49, 51, 54, 67 n.

Under the unwritten law defense the taker of private vengeance comes into court, admits rather than conceals the deed, and flying in the face of both facts and law wins acquittal through the force of social patterns and folk rationalizations. Where lynching may defy the legal process, a slayer pleading the unwritten law overcomes it by submission to it.

This accomplishment is due to the very simple fact that the jury represents the folk society. "The tendency of the American jury," writes Judge Watt in *Scribner's* for June, 1926, "is not to deliver a verdict according to the evidence but to pronounce a sort of Judgment of Solomon, although the qualifications of the jurors for such a delicate piece of work are usually in striking contrast to those of the monarch whom they imitate." True enough in theory, the jury is the court of last resort for the facts while the bench remains the court of last resort for the law. But what Judge Watt overlooks in this case is the fact that the jury under the palpable fiction of making the inference from law to fact and from fact to law is changing law to conform with folk beliefs. Nathaniel F. Cantor has well stated this point:

The jury is "guided," if at all, by the sense common to the average layman. Bias, caprice, random selection of remembered remarks, the rhetoric of the attorneys, group loyalty and religious, social, and economic mores determine the outcome. . . . We reach the conclusion that the jury, not the judge, decides the law in each particular case, and determines it, not through refined or even crude legal analyses, but through similar thought processes operating in their own lives—finding reasons to support conclusions.<sup>4</sup>

Judge after judge has charged the jury to the same intent as did a certain Judge Biddle of Philadelphia when he said: "In this court the unwritten law is not worth the paper it isn't written on." Yet jury after jury have returned verdicts which show that under the guise of interpreting evidence they are substituting for the law of the land the moral ideology of the folk. Extra-organizational and extra-institutional as is the system of folk ways embodied in the unwritten law, it can realize and perpetuate itself without organization. The unwritten law is neither a legal fiction nor is it a defense mechanism. "There is no law," says Little, "so the slayer who kills a man escapes the husband from liability for taking the life of the wife or

<sup>4</sup> *Crime, Criminals, and Criminal Justice*, pp. 219-22.

her paramour, although he slay both or either while in the act of adultery."<sup>5</sup>

With this preliminary statement, we turn to the question of this paper. In the marginal zone between folk ways and state ways, in the social situation of marital infidelity and private vengeance, what are the conflicting legal and folk concepts which the jury must rationalize?

Except where contravened by statute, common law opposes to the slaying of the wife's paramour or seducer the rational and cold-blooded rule of agency. Husband and wife are recognized as separate and distinct personalities with distinct wills. The husband then can act only as the agent of this principal, and the authority of the agent cannot exceed that of the principal. Thus the husband is not justified in taking the life of another, even though he discover the paramour in guilty embrace with his spouse. "This is an act," sums up the *Corpus Juris*,<sup>6</sup> "consented to by her and as she would have no right to take the life of her paramour because of the act committed, her husband acting in her defense has no greater right."

To the folk way of thinking this is stale, flat, and unprofitable doctrine. Such slayings to their way of thinking belong equally with self-defense in the category of justifiable homicide. The point may be stated very simply. To the folk rationalization there exists no recourse at law comparable to the social wrong and emotional pain inflicted. The penalties under criminal law are totally inadequate, while recourse to civil suits for damages brands one as a coward and lacking in the finer sensibilities. Only in sophisticated urban societies which have long since bid adieu to pristine morals can divorce be counted a socially acceptable solution. While such a divorce may brand a culpable wife, it leaves the paramour untouched. Moreover, in folk society the cuckold is the branded one, while to admit the knowledge of a paramour and let him live is a public confession of cowardice. Accordingly, in folk thinking the concept of the sanctity of human life has been voided by the erstwhile paramour's violation of other concepts of sanctity. In folk thinking the implied concept violated is usually pointed out as the sanctity of the home and the final plea is: "He broke up my home." Within this major rationalization lie several other folk concepts worthy of examination.

<sup>5</sup>*Corpus Juris*, 30 and 261, p. 82, n. 15.

<sup>6</sup>*Ibid.*

Basic to the unwritten law is the property concept of marriage. The patriarchal background of much of our western culture has left the folk with a cherished conviction that marriage gives the husband a property right in the person of his wife. Under this concept the wife is regarded as inert, non-personal, passive, and involuntary. Her part in the initiation of and accession to an illicit relationship can thus be mercifully ignored. Though assault cannot be pleaded, yet by a kind of rationalized chivalry her part is extenuated by being regarded as passive. Accordingly, all the figures of speech used as "carriers of emotional freight" compare such illicit relationships with burglary or arson. A jewel is stolen, a citadel is forced, or a habitation is destroyed by the torch of arson.

One may search far before one finds a more apt statement of this folk rationalization than the following opinion of a Georgia judge in 1860. While folk judgments often gain utterance through the *obiter dicta* of all-too-human wearers of the ermine, as will be pointed out later this judge spoke fairly discreetly within limits of a Georgia statute.

Has an American jury ever convicted a husband or wife of murder or manslaughter, for killing the seducer of his wife or daughter? And with this exceedingly broad and comprehensive enactment on our statute book, is it just to juries to brand them with perjury for rendering such verdicts in this state? Is it not their right to determine whether in reason or justice, it is not justifiable in the sight of Heaven and earth, to slay the murderer of the peace and respectability of a family, as one who forcibly attacks habitation and property? What is the annihilation of houses or chattels by fire and faggot, compared with the destruction of female innocence; robbing woman of that priceless jewel, which leaves her a blasted ruin with the mournful motto inscribed upon its frontals, "thy glory is departed?" Our sacked habitations may be rebuilt, but who shall repair this moral desolation? How many has it sent suddenly, with unbearable sorrow, to their graves?

In what has society a deeper concern than in the protection of female purity, and the marriage relation? The wife cannot surrender herself to another. It is treason against the conjugal rights. Dirty dollars will not compensate for a breach of the nuptial vow. And if the wife is too weak to save herself, is it not the privilege of the jury to say whether the strong arm of the husband may not interpose, to shield and defend her from pollution?

Where the doctrine of agency is carried to its logical conclusions, the property concept has little or no standing in law. This may be

<sup>1</sup> *Georgia Reports. Diggs v. State* (XXIX 723-30). By the Court—J. Lumpkin, delivering the opinion (1860).

shown by the words of a recent English decision. In dismissing a suit for damages by a grocer's assistant against a physician for enticing his wife from his home, Justice Henry Alfred McCardie said:

I must tell you that a woman's body does not belong to her husband. It is her own property, not his. . . . She can leave her husband of her own free will. . . . and can decide whether and when to bear children. She is a citizen not a serf.<sup>8</sup>

The view of the wife as inert property, moreover, undergoes a severe logical strain when it develops that she has shown in the illicit relationship a will and desires of her own. Accordingly it is bolstered by a corollary, a theory of sovereignty resident in the husband. This, of course, is another legitimate patriarchal heritage in western culture. When there is brought before the jury open conflict between husband and wife, the protection of property from rapine hardly seems a tenable defense. The inert chattel seeks the thief, the family habitation seeks the torch of arson. But a theory of the husband's sovereignty rationalizes the situation by pointing out that the wife must yield to his desires and commands concerning her choice of associates. Nor shall any third party contravene his demands. This theory may be found expressed or implied in the statutes of several states while the unwritten law has operated to justify the slaying of the wife herself in case of her continued defiance of authority. The charge of a lower court, again in Georgia, may be taken as an exhibit of the theory of sovereignty.

A man would have the right, nay it would be his duty, to protect and defend his wife against any assault upon her virtue by either a seducer or an adulterer. In this state the husband is the head of the family; the wife is subject to him; her legal civil existence is merged in the husband, except so far as the law recognizes her separately either for her own protection or for her benefit, or for the preservation of public order—[Code. section 1753]. And it would be the duty of a wife to conform to any reasonable and just regulations the husband may lay down for guiding her conduct or choosing her associates—and it would be the duty of all other persons to acquiesce in the husband's authority or directions, so far as known in respect thereto, and if any man should violate this principle for the purpose of adultery, or seduction, and by open force or deceit or fraud, come between husband and wife, the husband would have a right immediately and swiftly to resort to force for the expulsion of such intruder, and, as before noted, to use just so much force as was necessary, and even to slay the aggressor, if such killing should be actually necessary in order to protect and defend his wife.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>8</sup> See *Time*, February 1, 1932, p. 15.

<sup>9</sup> *Georgia Reports*, *Hill v. State* (Vol. 64, par. 459).

The final folk rationalization is to extol private vengeance under the unwritten law to a principle of social welfare and public morals, the process by which folk ways become mores. The question then becomes: Would it be good social policy to allow home-breakers to go unpunished? Each juryman who finds himself asked by astute lawyers, "Do you want your home broken up by an unprincipled scoundrel?" finds his implied answer elevated unto a concept of universal social validity. In the ensuing rationalization, the sanctity of human life is eclipsed by the sanctity of the home. Plenty of evidence lies at hand to support this view, not the least of which is its occasional enactment into statute which we shall presently cite. A popular and widely read columnist on affairs of the heart has written:

There was a time when they handled these situations better and when the gay Lothario went poaching on a husband's preserves at the peril of his life.<sup>10</sup>

Sir Henry Alfred McCardie's opinion, for example, has been widely cited as undermining the foundations of public morality. Not often do the representatives of the folk concepts become vocal, but examples can be cited. "There is no better law," wrote a Texan in 1912, "than the unwritten law—the proof is that it doesn't have to be written. It springs spontaneously to the hearts and minds of honest honorable men." He concluded:

The result of all this shooting—and I believe Texas has more of it than any other state in the Union—is to minimize the rotten plots of indecent or money-minded citizens. I believe there is greater security and respect for the home here and less need to get seventeen lawyers and examine a contract between honest men than anywhere else under the sun. . . . Texas can not help feeling that if you object to our shooting under those conditions you must be one of the sort we'd "get."<sup>11</sup>

Within this concept of social welfare lies coiled the group pressure to private vengeance. It is neither right nor decent that the wronged husband should allow the despoiler of his home to remain alive and unmolested. H. C. Brearley analyzes this social incitement to homicide and presents the case of a timid husband who feigned insanity in order to avoid "doing his duty." Another husband S, informed by anonymous telephone calls of his wife's infidelity with a neigh-

<sup>10</sup> Quoted in *The American Journal of Sociology*, 1912, 17, 103.

<sup>11</sup> Chester J. Crowell, "Six Shooter Ethics," *The Independent* (December 5, 1912), p. 1314.

bor, brooded five weeks over the matter, told a friend: "I have traced the S family as far back as I know and have never seen a murderer. I hate to be the first but I see no way out of it." Within a few days he met the invader of his home and slew him.<sup>12</sup>

No folk ways could have become so strong as those clustered around the unwritten law without having entered at certain points into the legal doctrine. The unwritten law has been expressly enacted in certain states; it has crept into legal precedent through statutory loopholes in other states; and in common law it has modified the rule of self-defense. Thus while common law does not allow the victimized husband the right of private vengeance, it follows folk patterns closely enough to take from the paramour or seducer practically every vestige of the right of self-defense if caught *flagrante delicto*. For brevity's sake we may follow the summary in *Corpus Juris*:

Sexual intercourse with the wife of another is a wrong so obviously calculated to bring on a difficulty with the husband, that if the paramour when caught in the act or just after, kills the husband in order to save himself from death or great bodily harm he cannot invoke the doctrine of self-defense as a justification or excuse except when the husband attempts to kill him in vengeance for past wrongs as where knowing of his wife's infidelity, he deliberately lays a trap for the paramour in order to kill him if caught in the act. However, it is held in some jurisdictions that illicit intercourse with another is not such a provocation or bringing on a difficulty as to deprive the paramour of the right of self-defense. The right of self-defense is not forfeited by the fact that some time prior to the homicide accused had intercourse with the wife of the deceased.<sup>13</sup>

The same rule operates to deprive the seducer of a daughter of the right of self-defense against her father.

Another compromise in the field is found wherever states have statutes so drawn as leave a loophole for the entrance of unwritten law doctrine. Thus in the code of Georgia, following the statute defining justifiable homicide, occurs the phraseology: "And all other instances which stand on the same footing of reason and justice as enumerated shall be justifiable homicide." By lawyers, juries, and by judicial opinion (as our quotations indicate) this has been taken as sufficient legal sanction for decisions embodying the unwritten

<sup>12</sup> H. C. Brearley, *Homicide in the United States*, p. 51.

<sup>13</sup> *Corpus Juris*, 30, Par. 218, p. 50.



law. But for this statute the common-law rule would be in force in Georgia against such slayings. Again under the statutes of some states a husband has as much right to protect his wife from adultery as from committing other felonies; and,

. . . if necessary to prevent its perpetration, he is justified in taking human life provided he has not forfeited the right by previous conduct. Under some statutes of this nature, after the act of adultery has been committed by the wife, the husband is not justified in killing her paramour. The killing must be to prevent new acts of adultery with the wife; the danger must be present and impending; and the killing must be necessary or apparently necessary to prevent the act of adultery.<sup>14</sup>

Being forward-looking rather than backward-looking, such statutes on their faces seem aimed at prevention rather than vengeance. Their presence, however, offers further stimulus to extra-legal decisions by the jury, especially in cases where the wife and her paramour are shown to have ignored previous warnings and commands.

There remains then the explicit enactment of the unwritten law into statute, not a far step from the doctrines listed above. This right has been recognized by several states, as New Mexico and Texas, which expressly provide that a man may kill his wife's paramour detected in an act of adultery. The Texas enactment provides that homicide is justifiable when committed by the husband upon the person of anyone taken in the act of adultery with the wife, provided the killing takes place before the parties to the act have separated. Here the intent of law coincides closely with the folk practice. Violence is used not in prevention of felony but in vengeance of a *fait accompli*. The phrase "have separated" is construed to mean that the parties need be only in each other's presence, and the accused is entitled to act on appearances. It may be noted in earlier Texan cases this statute was construed as also justifying the husband in killing the wife. Recent cases have led to rulings, more in accord no doubt with the intent of the legislation, that the husband may not defend the slaying of the wife on the ground of adultery. Finally, it may be pointed out that unwritten law decisions are still possible

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, Par. 261, n. 82.

homicide is not justifiable when committed because of past acts of adultery, juries in New Mexico, Texas, etc., may continue to substitute folk codes for legal codes under the guise of interpreting the facts in the cases.

Such a study of conflicting folk ways and state ways as here attempted suggests further problems lying in this neglected marginal zone between sociology and law. For example, what folk and legal difference would further research show between cultures such as the Latin civilization of southern Europe and Anglo-American civilization? What regional differences might be found in the United States as between North and South? Further problems emerge for the consideration of various social disciplines. Social ethics may be concerned with rationalizing out of these divergent views a consistent code of moral behavior. To the legislator and the student of law occurs the question of how far universal legal codes should go in contradicting provincial and folk patterns. The student of social change should be interested to ascertain whether law in this instance is coming around to the folk view, or folk ways are conforming to state ways. Does urbanized leisure-class society produce a pattern of sophistication and irony which rationalizes divorce as the resolution of a human problem which the folk still feel can be solved only by sudden death? And do the folk regard this attitude as essentially more immoral than their adherence to the unwritten law? Whatever the answers may be to these questions, none can fail to see the conflict between concepts of sanctity in human relations, on one side the sanctity of human life, on the other, the sanctity of property, of authority, of that emotional concept called "the home."

## CULTURAL MARGINALITY IN SEXUAL DELINQUENCY

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### ABSTRACT

Sociologists conceive of the person as in part created by his social world. An attempt is made to explore this concept by discovering the relations of marginal location (in space and culture) and mobility (physical and social) of the person to accompanying factors such as changes in personal relations and in his estimate of himself. Juvenile court records furnish data basic to a purely preliminary ecological study. The addresses of 700 "sexually delinquent" girls, those of their male partners, and their places of sex relations, when spotted on maps form six different triangular configurations. The first three of these, comprising 200 cases, are here presented from the standpoint of their position in relation to boundaries of community areas, and to boundaries of language areas. About half of the total fall on community frontiers, but over 86 per cent on boundaries of language areas. Tentative hypotheses emerge, but intensive interpretation must await examination of cultural and personal aspects not treated in the preliminary study.

The concept that every person is in part a microcosm of his social universe opens many resources for understanding much of his otherwise puzzling conduct. When two persons meet, the stamps of their respective group memberships are upon them, even in their fellowship. So it has been from the days of Boaz and Ruth to those of Wister's Virginian and his New England schoolmarm.

It was his [the Virginian cow-boy's] code never to speak ill of any man to any woman. . . . But today he must depart from his code . . . because his reticence had hurt her. . . . "There is a higher courage than fear of outside opinion" said the New England girl. "Cert'nly there is. That's what I'm showing in going against yours." "But if you know that you are brave, and if I know . . . what difference does the world make?" "Don't I owe my own honesty something better than that? . . . What men say about my nature is not just merely an outside thing. For the fact that I let 'em keep on sayin' it is a proof I don't value my nature enough to shield it from their slander and give them their punishment. Can't yu see how it must be about a man?" he repeated. "I cannot," she answered.

A clever piece of fiction purported to tell first an American business woman's own story and later her French lover's account of the same incidents. She was visiting France for the first time, and he was a "man of the world." As they became intimate, she began to take

marriage for granted; her amazement and humiliation at his unwillingness were unbounded. Conversely, in talking with a third person the man testified to utter surprise at her demand, a sense of hurt at her "ingratitude" to him, and complete bewilderment about all her values in love and marriage. Could the incongruities of two social worlds be more neatly mirrored? In each of these situations one must be familiar with the two sets of mores to understand the elements of the *impasse*.

The project hereafter described seeks to explore this concept by discovering the relations of marginal location (in space and culture) and mobility (physical and social) of the person to accompanying subjective factors such as changes in personal relations and in his estimate of himself. The juvenile court offers considerable data for approaching the ecological and elementary cultural phases of this problem, through records of girls labelled "sex delinquents" and what few facts can be gleaned about their male partners and the places of their activity. The prevalence of second generation children in the juvenile court makes this a study of heterosexual "delinquency" as an incident, perhaps an instrument, of cultural assimilation—a phase of "Americanization."

Pertinent data of an *ecological* nature include: (a) the addresses of girl, boy, and place of sex relations—three points—located in their respective culture and community areas; (b) the positions of these points in relation to each other and distances involved; (c) consideration of the same points in relation to the frontiers of their respective areas; (d) correlations between areas; and (e) the relation of the lines of their travel to transportation and to barriers. Of *cultural* interest are: (a) the identification of the family culture of each participant, in terms of linguistic, national, religious, and racial origins, and comparison of the two families; (b) the recognition and comparison of the cultures of the areas represented by the three points; and (c) the comparison of linguistic and other origins of each family with those prevailing in the area of residence, and those in the area of sex relations. On the *personality* side, case studies of both boy and girl, including: (a) previous personal and cultural history of each; (b) the natural history of their relationship; and (c) analyses of specific

situations in their experience to show the interdependence between the socio-psychological forces and those which we have called ecological and cultural would complete the evidence.

The present report, embodying the first results of such an investigation, deals statistically with *ecological* points (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*). It is significant chiefly as one step toward the exploration of the larger field as described. It is based on the records of 700 girl "sex delinquents" found in the Juvenile Court of Cook County, Illinois, residing in the city of Chicago, covering the period from 1900 to 1931 inclusive.<sup>1</sup> The infrequency of recording the male partner's name and address, and the address at which sex relations occurred, interposed a significant selective factor at the outset.<sup>2</sup>

These cases are spotted on base maps combining community areas of Chicago, industrial areas, parks, transportation, and language groups.<sup>3</sup> Undoubtedly the ideal map would include areas based on census figures, if such a map were available in completely graphic

<sup>1</sup> So few complete triangles were found for the years preceding 1912 (less than 20) that the actual period covered is practically only 20 years, from 1912 to 1931 inclusive.

<sup>2</sup> Method of artificial selection:

- a*) Every record in active files scanned for potential cases, which were then read in detail.
- b*) Every case in about 25 per cent of inactive files examined by same method as in (*a*). Some difficulty was met here, due to the fact that the files were being moved and reorganized; hence cases at the end of the alphabet were only partly available.
- c*) Representative character of results secured in (*a*) and (*b*) was checked as follows: Names of *all* girl delinquents were copied from the 1931 docket; every such record found in the file was scanned, and potential cases were read in detail. This control group yielded approximately the same results as those from (*a*) and (*b*).
- d*) Total records scanned, active and inactive. . . . . about 9,000  
 Total records read in detail, active and inactive. . . . . about 2,000  
 Total triangles usable, girls living within limits of city of Chicago,  
 three points given. . . . . about 700

<sup>3</sup> Mrs. Fay B. Karpf states in a recent letter: "Our areas were plotted on the basis of some ten thousand charity cases and a generous sample of contributors and social workers. We did not use census data, and hence I am in no position to estimate what part of the total population the cultural groups represent which characterize our areas."

form. A comparison of the language areas here used with a series of maps, based on the 1920 and 1930 census returns, showing the distribution of different foreign-born and racial groups in Chicago, substantiates the validity of our language area map. In fact the census figures indicate that the only major displacement of a nationality group during the decade 1920 to 1930 was that of Russian Jews by Negroes in the Near West Side.<sup>4</sup>

Six definite triangular configurations are revealed:

- a) *Mobility*, in which girl and boy lived less than one-half mile apart, while the place of sex relations was one-half mile or more distant from the residence of each.<sup>5</sup>
- b) *Demoralization*, in which the boy, living more than one-half mile away, experimented with the girl in or near her home.
- c) *Promiscuity*, all three points of which were more than one-half mile from each other.
- d) *Masked promiscuity*, the girl going to the boy's home, which was more than one-half mile from hers. "Masked" calls attention to the suspicion that in many cases what passed in the records for the boy's home was in reality a room rented for the night, and that this room would not be near his own home.
- e) *Neighborhood*, where all three points were less than one-half mile from each other.
- f) *Incest*, where all three points were usually in one home.

These are primarily diagrams of space, though it will be noted that (e) and (f) are separately classified, for various reasons not geographical, and that (c) and (d) are perhaps only temporarily separated, pending discovery of facts which may unite them. The ultimate function of the triangles is subsidiary, as crude devices for pointing off the settings in which personal communication occurs.

The first three configurations, comprising 200 cases, have been analyzed. For those cases having all points within the city, certain distances from point to point are noted in Table I.

These configurations are further analyzed in terms of position

<sup>4</sup> See E. W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb, *Census Data of the City of Chicago, 1920*, pp. 613-33, and *Census Data of the City of Chicago, 1930*, pp. 668-87.

<sup>5</sup> In the beginning a linear space criterion was adopted arbitrarily. If, as the study progresses, some other criterion becomes significant for classification—for instance whether or not a given triangle crosses a cultural boundary—it may be used to check the earlier categories, and possibly substituted.



mobility configuration represent about 22 interiors to 1 frontier, and the boys 2 to 1, though the places of sex relations are about equal. By contrast, girls in the promiscuity configuration represent more than 4 frontiers to 2 interiors, though boys represent a little over 1 to 1, and places are equal. The ratios in the demoralization triangle approximate that of the total, except in the tendency for boundaries to exceed interiors for boys.

Intensive interpretation would be premature at this stage in the study, when it is appropriate only to suggest hypotheses. The picture here portrayed of the mobility triangle leads one to imagine two friends or neighbors sallying forth beyond the borders of their familiar ground in search of unknown country. It is noticeable, however, that in more than half the cases they eventually find themselves in the heart of another area, rather than on its borders. One would expect to apprehend them in lodging houses, amusement parks, drink parlors, on frontiers. As a matter of fact, we do know that many of the places of sex relations are in cars, parks, cheap hotels. Such hotels, moreover, are seldom found in pure culture areas. These results confirm one well-known fact that community areas, while they are units ecologically speaking, are not necessarily homogeneous in culture. We also discover that many of the longer sides of the mobility configuration follow street-car, elevated, and railroad lines as well as boulevards. This strengthens a newer hypothesis, that position in community is modified by position with reference to transportation. Data on relation to transportation lines are on hand, to be considered in another phase of the investigation.

As to the 4 to 3 relation of frontiers to interiors for girls in the promiscuity configuration, it is natural that persons living on the outskirts of communities would, in the course of everyday experience, meet and become friendly with others from adjoining areas. But we find here that the areas are not always adjacent. Furthermore, natural and artificial barriers might be expected to prevent contact. Yet neither any branch of the river nor any railroad or industrial area does so in most cases. Nor do lines of travel coincide with transportation lines. The obvious conclusions are: that the contacts in the promiscuity triangle are not ecologically limited, and



are something more than accidental. For reasons not yet understood, there appears to be a genuine moving environment.

The excess of boundary positions for boys in the demoralization configuration needs little comment at this time. Preliminary to case studies of triangle types, the most casual common-sense reasoning indicates in this type a markedly peculiar situation, characterized by extreme laxity on the part of the girl's family. This may well be the most significant factor in the whole situation. Hence we may be prepared to discover varying conditions among the men involved, with little uniformity, and of relatively small significance.

TABLE III  
POSITION OF TRIANGLE POINTS IN CULTURE AREAS

	GIRL				BOY				PLACE				GRAND TOTAL	
	Dem.	Mob.	Prom.	Total	Dem.	Mob.	Prom.	Total	Dem.	Mob.	Prom.	Total	No.	Per Cent
Interior.....	3	2	3	8	3	4	5	12	3	2	8	13	33	13.58
Boundary.....	17	13	27	57	19	8	29	56	17	10	28	55	168	69.14
Interstitial.....	1	0	2	3	0	2	1	3	1	1	1	3	9	3.70
Overlapping....	4	0	9	13	3	1	6	10	4	2	4	10	33	13.58
Total.....	25	15	41	81	25	15	41	81	25	15	41	81	243	100.00

Turning to position in culture areas, we find an unequivocal result in the ratios, with no exceptions (Table III). Including, as before, only configurations having all points within the city and of known position relative to boundaries, we find a total of 81 cases, with 243 points. Over 86 per cent of all points fall on frontiers, including 69.14 on boundaries, 3.70 in interstitial areas, and 13.58 in overlapping areas. All triangle types, moreover, and all points in each, show similar ratios.<sup>6</sup>

This result verifies and amplifies a statement made tentatively by the writer in 1922, based on a spot-map of all juvenile court girl delinquents in 1921:

<sup>6</sup> Some of the interiors represent cosmopolitan areas, by which we understand those of mixed culture. If, as would be entirely consistent with our definitions, we classified cosmopolitan interiors as frontiers, the proportion of frontiers in the total figures would be 93.33 per cent. This would mean that the majority of juvenile delinquents are in areas of cultural transition.

Most significant . . . is the frequent concentration of delinquency cases in areas where two or more language or racial groups occupy homes near each other.<sup>1</sup>

The broader implications, however, cannot be clear without further reference to the significance of the "language group" on the map. The data basic to the language areas used seem to provide a fair sample of all the residents therein when comparison is made with census figures of nationality and racial distribution for 1920-30. If so, our findings clearly reveal *the cultural marginality of the habitat of juvenile court girl sex delinquents and their partners, as well as the marginality of their rendezvous.*

<sup>1</sup> Evelyn Buchan, M.A. Thesis, University of Chicago, 1922: *The Delinquency of Girls*, p. 64.

## SIMIAND'S CONTRIBUTION TO METHOD IN SOCIAL RESEARCH<sup>1</sup>

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### ABSTRACT

Simiand's great work on wages is suggestive for research method. He believes in going beyond correlations to the isolation of causes, and even "the cause." He accomplishes this by experimentation, but not of the laboratory variety. The preliminary step of observation produces *constatations* with reference to all factors of possible significance. In "experimentation" outside the laboratory this entails a careful canvass so as not to omit factors of importance. The "experiment" should be conducted over a period of time in one framework rather than in different frameworks at the same time. Because research of this kind rests on documents, documentary criticism should be employed. "Experiments" should be repeated. A hypothesis is not essential. The method could be widely used in sociology.

The question of method in sociological research, though old, is ever new. We have made but feeble beginnings in the scientific investigation of our field and are therefore glad to welcome help with respect to methodology from any competent source. A recent work which will repay study in this connection is François Simiand's *Le salaire, l'évolution sociale et la monnaie*,<sup>2</sup> and more particularly the 137-page introduction entitled, "La méthode positive et la présente recherche." The author of this monumental three-volume work is a sociological economist who has recently been appointed to a professorship in the Collège de France. The study in question, which is the fruition of some thirty years' labor, is concerned with the cause and conditions of wage movements. The conclusions are reached by comparing the trends of wages in France from 1789 to 1930 with such diverse factors as those of demography, communication and transport, religion, juridical and political facts, kinds of production, economic concentration, mechanization, trends in social classes, labor organizations, value of products, cost of living, economic relations among nations, monetary trends, and so on. One is stunned

<sup>1</sup> I am indebted to Dr. Herbert Blumer of the University of Chicago and to Mr. Clark Tibbitts of the University of Michigan for valuable suggestions in the preparation of this article.

<sup>2</sup> Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris, 1932. Simiand's views are also set forth in his *Statistique et expérience* (Paris: Marcel Rivière, 1922).

by the immensity of the task which Simiand has undertaken, and filled with admiration by the thoroughness with which he has carried it through. We shall not, however, concern ourselves here with his results, but shall turn immediately to his methodological views, which receive so complete an exemplification and such strong corroboration from his actual research.

Simiand definitely aligns himself with those who believe that scientific explanation consists in discovering causal connections rather than mere interdependences. He thinks that the most fruitful research in the social, as in the biological, sciences will be that which goes beyond the establishment of associations between variables and attempts to discover the degree and direction of causation. Historical insight springing from an intimate knowledge of the various factors involved and of their relations is therefore an indispensable supplement to correlation methods of analysis.

Contrary, perhaps, to the view of most sociologists, Simiand believes it expedient to speak of "the cause" of a social result. He admits, of course, that every such result has many antecedents, but it seems to him that "the effort of scientific investigation is toward discovering the antecedent whose relations to the fact [under investigation] can be most generally established (of the antecedents *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E* . . . in relation to *M* that one of which one can establish 'Every *M* is preceded by *A*')"; and that the effort will only be fully satisfied if it attains to a relation whose reciprocal is true ('Every *A* is followed by *M*'). Thus the cause is the most general, the closest, the least substitutable antecedent, and the most important item in explanation consists in linking such a fact to such an antecedent. But Simiand would not stop here (as would Mill). He would seriate the conditions (the more substitutable factors and the antecedents of the cause) in order of importance and give to each a weight in explanation corresponding to its place in the seriation.

In working out a scheme for the discovery of the cause and conditions of any social phenomenon Simiand relies on "experimentation," but not of the laboratory variety. He believes that the social scientist will have to take for his data the results of "natural" rather than artificial processes, and that he will have to manipulate these data mentally rather than physically or materially. This dis-

tion will become clearer if we examine his views concerning observation and experimentation.

To Simiand the usual view which regards observation and experimentation as alternative modes of scientific procedure is quite inaccurate. They are complementary processes, both of which are used in all scientific work. In the former, the mind of the investigator merely makes a notation of the facts, whether they are presented "naturally" or as the result of his active participation, as in the laboratory. In experimentation, on the other hand, his mind draws a relation between the facts, and it is immaterial whether the facts have arisen under natural or controlled conditions.

The process of observation produces *constatations*. (This is a term which I shall use in the original because I am unable to hit upon a proper one-word translation of it. In the singular it means an ordered, even selected, array of evidence respecting a particular sort of fact drawn from a number of cases at a given time. A *constatation conjointe* is composed of two such arrays concerning respectively the object of study and some factor which may have a causal connection with it.) The *constatations* which are products of observation in the laboratory are undoubtedly more accurate than those drawn from the observation of "natural" events because the investigator can arrange the amounts and qualities of many of the factors entering into the experiment. To that degree his *constatations* are matters of creation as well as observation. Moreover, the laboratory scientist simplifies his task by excluding many factors so that he does not have to deal with many *constatations*. His physical experimentation is thus rendered much less difficult than the intellectual experimentation of the social scientist.

Indeed, the social scientist must adopt a policy diametrically opposite to that of exclusion. He must be sure not to leave out of his later mental manipulations any factors of significance, and so must cast his net widely. Simiand does this by preparing both an empirical and a systematic list of circumstances or possibly conditioning factors. The former is derived from common observation and common sense, the latter from scientific theory. In his investigation of the social sciences, Simiand is not content with the mere recording of facts, but he also seeks to determine the nature, the scope, the kind of work, and region of place in his empirical facts. His

systematic list, on the other hand, included many factors connected with the economic system, such as production, division of labor, monetary trends, etc. With such lists in hand the investigator proceeds to gather evidence upon each factor and to match it with the evidence concerning the object of study by means of *constatations conjointes*.

Perhaps Simiand's most important contribution is his insistence that one must use successive *constatations* in the same framework (*cadre*) rather than coexisting *constatations* in different frameworks. He would study a phenomenon in one country or one industry over a period of time rather than in several countries or industries at the same time. This is, of course, analogous to what the laboratory man does in carrying through an experiment. It is a procedure which has two great advantages. In the first place, more factors are likely to be the same than when one employs coexisting *constatations* in different *cadres*, and the research is simplified to that degree. Secondly, because one can, as it were, "see" the stages in the process (causation) as well as the results, one can probably establish the anteriority of the changes in the variables and thus determine the direction of causation. In any event, one will obtain much greater insight into the relations of the variables; one will get the "feel" of the situation much better than would be possible by the comparative method.

It is obvious that Simiand's method is one that requires accurate data on many variables over a considerable span of time. This means that reliance will have to be placed almost exclusively upon documents. He therefore quite appropriately stresses the need of utilizing the canons of documentary criticism which the historians have developed. Not being able, like his laboratory colleague, either to exclude complicating factors from his "experiment" or to repeat it easily, the social scientist must be absolutely certain that his *constatations* give an accurate index of reality.

Like all good scientists Simiand believes in repeating his experiments. In the case of his own study he did this by breaking the complete series of wage data down into five successive movements or temporal "variations," as he calls them, and then treating each "variation" as the basis of a distinct "experiment." The amount of work which this entailed for many factors is obvious, and it is not

surprising, therefore, that his whole second volume is given over to bringing together data concerning possibly relevant factors and matching them with the evidence regarding wages for each separate "variation." Unless he finds close similarity of trends in all five "variations," or, in other words, unless all five experiments indicate the same linkage, he discards the factor under examination. When satisfied on this score he has the further task of determining the direction and degree of causation.

It will be noticed that nothing has been said about the use of a hypothesis. Though he believes hypotheses are perfectly legitimate devices in scientific investigation and often highly useful, he does not regard them as necessary. In his wage study he preferred to proceed without any such preconceptions by merely placing himself before the facts of possible significance and working out the relationships contained in them.

The method herein sketched is applicable to any sociological problems the data relative to which are accessible in documentary form. Though it would be convenient to have these data quantitative as well, this can hardly be expected in many fields. The writer is of the opinion that the method could be most easily employed to study the causes of the trends in population and vital statistics and of institutional growth and change.

The following formulation may serve to summarize Simiand's most striking ideas regarding social research:

- (1) The cause of a phenomenon is to be found through the corroboratory results of
- (2) several "experiments," each one of which involves
- (3) the intellectual manipulation of facts revealed by
- (4) many *constatations conjointes* made up from
- (5) soundly documented data
- (6) taken successively in the same *cadre*
- (7) concerning factors suggested by empirical and systematic lists.

## THE PRESENT STATE OF THE PROFESSION

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### ABSTRACT

Analysis of the title list of 258 doctoral dissertations in sociology in the July, 1933, issue of the *Journal* raises the question whether there are jobs for so many young scholars in training. A liberal estimate of the graduate faculties in sociology in the 32 colleges and universities of the list gives only 130 positions. Recent studies of university professor turnover suggest 5 per cent as the maximum. The distribution of these dissertations shows Chicago (51) and Columbia (49) far in the lead. New York University School of Education and Wisconsin are near the danger line. Of the remaining 28 institutions, 18 report from 1 to 5 titles, and 10 from 6 to 10 titles.

Two significant evidences of the state of the sociological profession appear in the July issue of the *Journal*. Taking these in reverse order we find that the references to the "Personnel Exchange"<sup>1</sup> may well be considered against the background supplied by the title list of 258 doctoral dissertations.<sup>2</sup> Examined in juxtaposition the two evidences are startling, to say the least, and warrant the careful consideration of the leaders of the profession. They raise again, but this time in sharp challenge, the question, "Are the graduate departments of sociology overproducing trained personnel?"

If the list of unplaced Ph.D.'s in sociology printed in the May issue has not been substantially reduced, what is the future of the 258 young scholars now in training?

Even if we assume, first, that some of the titles listed may never be completed or lead to the degree, and second, that some candidates are on leave from positions to which they will return, there is little solace in such suppositions because in these days titles are not accepted or printed until the candidate has satisfied some preliminary tests of capacity to complete work begun, and furthermore, in these days less than 20 per cent of our graduate students are on leave from jobs. In any event, it is not far from the truth to assume that the authors on this list represent the most promising of the younger generation.

<sup>1</sup> Page 103 of Volume XXXIX, Number 1, July, 1933, also May, 1933, issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 71-84.



Taking the figures as they stand, we may ask how many professional graduate school positions exist in the 32 universities and colleges represented? According to my calculation there cannot be more than 130 men and women professors of sociology who are capable of directing graduate work in sociology in these institutions. I am sure that some deans of graduate schools would put this figure much lower. But taking 130 as a very liberal figure, is it not logical for these 258 promising graduate students to aspire some day to fill these 130 positions rather than to remain in minor appointments?

What is the turnover in professorial positions? At what rate are the top positions vacated by death, resignation, or retirement? What is the annual rate of personnel replacement?

In suggesting an answer to these questions, we must recognize at once that most of the turnover by resignations involves merely the transfer by promotion to some other institution of similar grade. Only in a few cases is there a net increase in vacancies to be filled. A recent paper by Sorokin and Anderson<sup>3</sup> based on a study of university catalogue faculty lists shows that for Harvard, Chicago, Minnesota, and Carleton, the per cent range of changes was 9.6 to 20.0 for professors. These data are averages for 40-year periods.

A carefully checked study of turnover on the Minnesota faculty (all departments) based on official appointment records for the period 1912 to 1930 shows the following average rates of turnover by ranks: assistant professors 7.3, associate professors 4.0, professors 3.9. Inasmuch as the Sorokin-Anderson paper shows that Minnesota fairly represents the trends of turnover as between Chicago and Harvard, and since, furthermore, the most carefully checked turnover figures for Minnesota show a lower rate than the previous study, we may conclude that 5 per cent represents the maximum turnover of first-class universities having graduate departments of sociology. Considering the present decline in the financial resources of universities, the drop in their enrolment, the closing up of small colleges, and the termination of research enterprises, it seems likely that turnover will, for the next decade, diminish rather than increase. This being the prospect we may conclude that 5 per cent of 130 positions

<sup>3</sup> "The Problem of Human Growth and Social Institutions and Educational Opportunity," *International Population Congress*, 1931.

represents the maximum number of vacancies to be filled annually in the 32 larger or stronger institutions that support departments of sociology and draw on the group of best-trained candidates. The absolute number is thus 6.5. At this rate it would take some term of years to place all of the 206 (258 less estimated 20 per cent on leave from jobs to do graduate study) young scholars who give the dates of completion of their dissertations as follows: 113 in 1933, 79 in 1934, 9 in 1935, and 5 not stated. Looking at the figures another way, there will finish dissertations in 1933, 17 times the number of estimated vacancies, and in 1934, 12 times this number.

Considering the incidence of this Ph.D. production, two institutions appear to have passed the danger line, for taking the count for what it is worth, Chicago records 51 titles on the list, 45 for 1933, 5 for 1934, and 1 for 1935; Columbia records 49 titles, 12 for 1933, 27 for 1934, 4 for 1935, and 6 for years not stated (these are undiscounted totals).<sup>4</sup> The overproduction thus appears to be highly concentrated. Whether the disparity between the totals at different years of completion represents the effort of Chicago to limit her production to a declining market, or the effort of Columbia to spread the incidence over future years in the hope of improvement, the mere figures cannot, of course, settle. At any rate, the totals raise some fundamental questions of the trend of policy.

Two institutions appear to be nearing the danger line. New York University School of Education reports 22 titles, 15 for 1933 and 7 for 1934; Wisconsin reports 18 titles, 6 for 1933, and 11 for 1934, and 1 for 1935.<sup>4</sup>

Of the remaining 28 institutions, 18 report from 1 to 5 titles, and 10 report from 6 to 10 titles. Whatever the cause, these institutions seem better adapted to the existing market situation. In any event, the newer graduate departments at Duke, Harvard, Michigan State, Pittsburgh, and Vanderbilt, may well pause to consider the predicaments of Chicago and Columbia, and the situation faced by New York University School of Education and Wisconsin.

<sup>4</sup> For all institutions the 258 are divided as follows: 141 in 1933, 99 in 1934, 11 in 1935, and 7 not stated.

## TOO MANY PH.D.'S?

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### ABSTRACT

While 258 candidates for the Ph.D. are in training in 32 institutions, many of these are already employed, and many will go into other fields. There are seventeen institutions, each with more than 5,000 students, which are not in the list of assumed positions. The danger is not of an oversupply so long as men are well trained. Sociology must be practiced as well as taught. There are positions of research and administration of increasing importance. Public-school teaching and administration offers a field for the young sociologist who must in his turn seek the highest training and should shape his ambitions with emphasis on his obligation to the nation.

Serious questions have come to responsible educators in these times concerning the possibility of an oversupply of teachers. The situation is well stated by Professor Chapin in his article in this issue of the *Journal*. It is evident from the figures there given that few of the 258 scholars now working on theses for the doctor's degree can expect appointments as successors to the 130 highest positions in the United States. This article is not intended in any sense as a reply to Professor Chapin. A brief statement on the situation was in contemplation, and Professor Chapin's article only brought that purpose to a final decision in the hope that a somewhat further analysis might be welcome.

For there are some facts which would tend to lighten the picture a little. It is natural to assume that the listings in the Personnel Exchange are of unemployed sociologists, yet 30 per cent of the names in the Personnel Exchange are known to be employed. Several are unknown; it is probable that at least one-third now have positions. Moreover, some of the listings are of students still engaged in study, so there are duplicate entries in the Personnel Exchange and in the list of 258 doctoral dissertations.

An even more favorable aspect appears in the fact that many acceptable positions are open to the young doctors other than appointment to one of the 130 ranking positions. If the department of sociology at the University of Chicago is at all typical, there are many other avenues. Chicago has granted 106 doctor's degrees, and

101 doctors are now living and active. Of these, 64, or about 63 per cent, are now in positions other than those in the leading universities. These include administration, business, teaching in foreign countries, research, and teaching in other departments than sociology. Some are in small colleges and in important institutions like Dartmouth, Mount Holyoke, or Brown, where the doctor's degree is not granted but where it is essential for a position on the staff.

While it would seem, therefore, that the 51 candidates whose research program has been accepted would form a heavy liability from the point of view of placement, there are extenuating facts. For of these candidates more than 60 per cent are at present employed. Some are on leave, others have finished their residence work and have gone back to their appointments, and still others have accepted appointments expecting to complete their research and receive the degree later. This leaves a total of 20 to be placed, and since only 35 per cent go into the large universities, there is a total of 7.4 persons left for the higher positions. But we must allow for a decrease in this number to account for those who will drop out and others who will fail on the final examination. Our experience at Chicago leads us to reckon this conservatively as 25 per cent. Thus we have 5.5 persons for the higher positions.

But the 32 institutions which appear in this year's list are only a fraction of the number of American schools and colleges where sociologists are needed. There are more than 575 colleges in the United States, though many of them are small, and some are destined to give up the struggle. But there are 164 institutions with over 1,000 students. There are 95 with over 2,000 students, and 112 with more than \$2,000,000 in endowment. In the list of 32 there are only 12 state universities represented, and very important schools in this class are left out which ought to have sociological instruction. There are 14 in the list of 32 which have less than 5,000 students, and there are 17 institutions of more than 5,000 not on the list at all. The need for sociologists is not static. If sociologists have produced that which is of high social value, the students in American colleges and universities have as much right to it as to biology, mathematics, or history. Progress has been very rapid in this direction.

The important caution is not against the absolute numbers but

only against superficial training and inadequate selection. The new departments at Harvard, Duke, and elsewhere can be trusted, under their able leadership, to uphold high standards. There seems to be reason to hope that there will be a demand for scholars of proved ability and thorough training.

But all these considerations suggest a more fundamental issue. Are graduate students to be told that they should pursue their studies for the purpose of getting one of the 130 top positions in the universities? If the object is to teach men only that they may teach other men, we are in the position of teachers of Greek. The expenditure on departments of sociology in the nation is very large. The annual budgets of the 32 departments mentioned run into millions. How can this be justified? When the committee of the legislature considers the budget of a state university and votes money for the training of graduate students in sociology they will hardly vote the precious dollars merely to enable ambitious young men to prepare for the best teaching positions. Sociology as a subject merely to be taught is a parasite: sociology as a profession to be practiced may have indispensable social utility.

But if the social motive be admitted in the establishment and support of the graduate school, what are the reasonable expectations as to the motives of the students? Why do they come? In accord with the prevailing acquisitiveness and competitive commercialism of our day it is probably true that many come only that they may get good jobs. It takes three years or more of extra study and a financial sacrifice of a serious nature to many, so why may he not expect to receive his reward? Of course he may. But he has not paid for all he has received. In many cases there are generous fellowships and stipends. But if he pay his tuition fees he has still been heavily subsidized. Other men have labored, and he has entered into their labors. Does he owe anything, and if so, how can he pay? Having received much, he should recognize his debt to the nation.

In addition to the expected increase in the demand for men of sociological training in research and administration in government departments, in the industrial situation, the great need of the day is for the trained sociologist, economist and statistician. There is need for men trained in research to study the problems of

rural America, whose problems are now being admitted to be appropriate to our methods. The young men who have a doctor's degree in sociology may feel superior to the job of county agent, but we are discussing the need and the opportunity.

Another important unused opportunity for trained sociologists from the standpoint of the welfare of the nation seems to lie in the field of public secondary education and educational administration. The financial rewards are not unfair, the permanency of tenure in the city systems is assured, and the opportunity for constructive service undisputed. While the prestige of public school teaching in America has not been high, this is due to historical conditions now rapidly changing. In Germany the doctor's degree has always been considered the normal preparation for teaching in the secondary schools. In America it need not be considered as burying the talent in a napkin. If there could be some hundreds of competent and devoted sociologists giving themselves to the problems of the adolescents in training in our secondary schools, the national life would surely reflect a wise use of our resources.

But whether one or all of these fields should attract our young scholars or not, the principle that I have stated seems valid. The spirit of individualism and fierce competition is out of line with modern acceptance of social responsibility, emphasized indeed by familiar developments in the attempt to meet the present crisis, but antedating any political event of recent times. America is not interested in helping any young man or any group of young men to get ahead. America is interested in giving the highest training possible to its gifted youth only if this training is socially valuable. Having given this training, America has a right to expect the youth to make his plans with reference to his obligation to the nation. Unless I have misjudged them they will acknowledge the debt and find their place, receiving enough money for their needs, and with it the intangible rewards of social approval by which men chiefly live.

# TOPICAL SUMMARIES OF CURRENT LITERATURE

## SOCIAL ATTITUDES

• DANIEL D. DROBA  
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In a general review of attitudes and motives by Bain (6)<sup>1</sup> 261 references were included and classified into four sections as follows: attitude theory, theory and technique of measurement, overt behavior attitudes, case study methods and attitudes, and verbal attitudes or opinions. Sherman (74) divided his review, appended by 88 references, into four parts: definitions, theories of measurements, methods, and results. House (37, 38) presented a summary of the definitions of attitude as found in the sociological literature. Karpf (40) gave us a brief summary of the attitude theories of Faris, Thomas, and Mead.

With respect to the measurement of attitudes, Thomas and Thomas (82) gave a sketch of a testing program for attitudes. Symonds (78) gave a summary of the "attitude questionnaires" and has appended 31 references. Vetter (89) reviewed 38 references on political and social opinions. Droba (26) reviewed six methods for measuring attitudes based on 125 references. Likert (48) gave a description of a technique refining the methods of absolute and relative ranking and has appended 43 references.

In the opinion of Znaniecki (104) changes in attitudes take place whenever the community goes into a voluntary crisis passing through four stages in a definite succession. The so-called "mob-mind" is explained by Lorden (51) in saying simply that the mob expresses attitudes that are conventionally concealed. For Thomas (80) attitude is one of the main factors in social change.

Warren (90) and Allport (2) belong among the believers in the organic theory of attitudes. The behavior theory of attitudes is

<sup>1</sup> Figures in parentheses refer to the Bibliography at the end of the article.

represented by Bain (5) and Symonds (77). However, by far the largest number of writers appear to suggest that they adhere to the mentalistic theory. Thus Faris (29, 30, 31) believes that attitude is a tendency or predisposition to action. To quote, he says (30) that "the attitude is in part the residual effect of the act, but it remains as a predisposition to certain forms of subsequent activity." For Bogardus (18) "an attitude is a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive or negative value." In the opinion of Young (100, 101) an attitude is a set or a tendency to action or an anticipatory behavior. Znaniecki (103) seems to have substituted the term "social tendency" for the term "attitude."

Some writers seem to think of attitudes in terms of "behavior patterns." Thus Park and Burgess (65) wrote "the clearest way to think of attitude is as behavior pattern or unit of behavior." According to Bernard (9) "attitudes are for the most part acquired behavior patterns having been built up out of our experiences in characteristic situations." Wolfe (96) is another writer who belongs here, and perhaps Markey (54) can also be classified here since he is talking about attitudes as "behavior integrations."

Thomas, the pioneer writer in this field, began to air his view in the first decade of this century (79), but his full exposition of attitudes appeared in the second decade (83). He wrote, together with Znaniecki, that an attitude is "a process of individual consciousness which determines real or possible activity of the individual in the social world."

Other writers used a varied terminology in describing attitudes. Lumley (52) talks about "susceptibility to certain kinds of stimuli and readiness to respond"; North (62) labels attitude as "the dynamic element in human activity, the motive for activity"; and Thorndike (84) used the terms of "dispositions, pre-adjustments, or sets." For Tuttle (88) an attitude is "some element of worth, of interest, of desire" and for Dewey (25) it is a "latent, potential, subdued, non-patent form of habit." Finally, an interesting and important contribution to the attitude theory was made by Cantril (22). His experimental findings seem to indicate that an attitude is a general rather than a specific tendency.



In the literature on the types of attitudes Burnham (21) has used such terms as "affective, childish, and helpful attitudes." Bogardus (16) reported an extensive study of racialism or attitudes toward the races. Among the races were included Negroes, Mexicans, Filipinos, Chinese, and other immigrant groups. In his methodological book (14) he has taken some of his samples from studies on racialism. Miller (56) has described the attitude of the East toward the English and compared it with the attitude toward the French. Watson (91) has devised a test of fair-mindedness consisting of six parts. Lasker (44) wrote a book on the types, development, teaching, and modification of race attitudes in children. Minard (58) made a study of race attitudes of 1,352 Iowa children, and racialism is one of the twelve international attitudes studied by Neumann (61).

Besides the above studies of racialism in general, there are studies limited to attitudes toward specific racial groups. A comparison of the attitudes toward the Negro with attitudes toward the immigrant was made by Miller (57). A study of white attitudes toward the Negroes as represented by 17 white daily newspapers was reported by Gist (33). In the same article he included the results of a study of Negro attitudes toward the whites as indicated by 10 Negro weeklies. Fifteen educated Negroes were interviewed by Alexander (1) regarding Negro opinion about "Amos and Andy."

Peterson and Thurstone (67) gave a test to 133 high-school students in a small community before and after seeing a moving picture about the Germans. Attitudes of the Mexican immigrants toward America at the time of their arrival and several years later, and the attitudes of Americans toward the Mexicans were investigated by Bogardus (17).

There is a great variety of political attitudes as indicated by Lasswell (45). Rice (71) has given us an extensive quantitative treatment of political attitudes including the statistical distribution and variation of political attitudes. The existence of types in political attitudes was discovered by Allport (3) who also found that political attitudes are general rather than specific. Vetter (89) gave a test to 100 undergraduates to measure racial and political attitudes. Of these attitudes, 10 were racial and 10 were political. The racial attitudes were: anti-Semitic, anti-Negro, anti-Chinese, anti-Japanese, anti-Filipino, anti-Indian, anti-Australian, anti-English, anti-American, and anti-foreign. The political attitudes were: conservative, liberal, and radical attitudes with respect to

36 different issues, while Harris, Remmers, and Ellison (35) investigated liberalism in relation to such factors as intelligence, religion, political affiliation, and education.

Page (63) reported a study of attitudes toward war among nineteen thousand clergymen. Porter (68) made a study of student opinion on war in various institutions throughout the country. Eight different questions on war were asked by Baumgarten (7) of 700 Polish boys and girls during the German occupation of Poland. In the opinion of Droba (27) attitudes toward war are the fundamental causes of war. This might be corroborated by a finding of his (28) that a positive relation exists between political parties and war attitudes. The educational value of military training in American universities and colleges was studied by Bishop (12) for the Department of Interior. A census taken at the Student Volunteer Quadrennial at Buffalo on the disarmament question was reported by Braden (19).

Among studies of other political attitudes should be mentioned those of Lockhart (49, 50) who made an investigation of children's attitudes toward laws and compared them with those of lawyers, college graduates, and civic-club members. An examination of votes at over 14,000 local-option elections on the liquor question in Massachusetts, Arkansas, and Michigan over a long period of years was reported by Wooddy and Stouffer (97).

With respect to economic attitudes, four studies were included in our review. Atkins and Lasswell (4) made a study of attitudes of groups such as the coal miners, the steel workers, farmers, and the clothing workers, and Zimmerman (102) investigated farmers' attitudes toward co-operative marketing. An attempt to study the factors affecting the attitudes of a group of women factory workers was made by Kornhauser and Sharp (42). Hart (36) examined 663 articles in eleven American magazines (1929-32) in order to discover changes in opinions about business prosperity.

In a theoretical discussion about occupational attitudes Bogardus (15) stated that the process of occupational attitude resolves into a series of stages: *a priori*, reflective, synthetic, interdependent, and a *posteriori* stage. In an earlier study (13) he gave a description of an occupational egocentrism. Smith (75) maintained that the differ-

ence between the urban and the rural groups can be stated in terms of occupational attitudes arising from the occupational conditions. A study of attitudes of clients toward the social case workers was reported by Queen (69). Finally, McKenzie (55) found that occupational participation in British Malaya, Hawaii, and Alaska is a question of attitudes and conditions.

Educational attitudes were studied very extensively by Katz and Allport (41) who subjected practically the whole student body at the Syracuse University to a very thorough testing program. Various attitude schedules were used in order to discover an adjustment between the organized methods of higher education and the human factors involved. Wickman (93) measured the attitudes of teachers toward undesirable forms of children's behavior such as stealing, cheating, lying, and unnecessary tardiness. Thrasher (85) attempted to study the attitudes of superior boys in the midst of influences coming from the family, the immigrants, and the American community. Among other attitudes, the attitudes of prisoners, policemen, and superior adults toward education were studied by Lewerenz (47). In a preliminary experiment on the compulsory class attendance a study of the effect of group discussion on the opinions of the members of the group was made by Jenness (39).

In a theoretical discussion of regional attitudes, Bernard (8) pointed out that the difference between the farmers and the city dwellers lies in their judgments and attitudes which they have built out of experience and training. Steiner (76) described and illustrated the changes from conservatism to liberalism in the rural community which are largely due to industrialism and modern communication. Rice (73) has examined a discussion of Williams on the development of rural attitudes.

Daly (24) maintained that a woman wants to be a man because she envies man's greater social freedom and the absence in man of the disgusting elements. Watson and Green (92) sought to discover the extent to which 231 students would anticipate some of the experimental findings about opinions on sex questions. Carpenter (23) concluded that in addition to the economic factor attitudes will determine whether a family will be able to afford and accept a child. An analysis of parental attitudes regarding problems such as the

nature and the technique of parenthood and the nature of childhood.

An example of a study of religious attitudes is that of Trout (87) whose conclusions were largely based on autobiographical and biographical accounts. Conservatism *vs.* radicalism or an attitude toward social change was investigated by Wolfe (96) who gave us an extensive theoretical discussion in this field. In an earlier study (95) he advocated that the motivation of radicalism takes place through one of three possible processes of readjustment: repression, substitution and transference, and re-enforcement.

Among the general treatments of attitudes might be mentioned that of Bernard (9) who gave us a discussion of such topics as the nature of attitudes, the classification of attitudes, attitude types such as intellectual, emotional, imitative, and permanent attitudes. In his paper in the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* (10) he analyzed the nature, function, types, and measurement of attitudes, and their relation to public opinion. Folsom (32) identified social psychology with attitudes. He devoted one chapter especially to the study of social and cultural attitudes differentiated on the basis of changeability and uniformity throughout a cultural area.

Krueger and Reckless (43) in two chapters discussed the nature of attitudes including such questions as the definition, types, and relation to other phenomena. The characteristics of attitudes were discussed by Park (64) who maintained that an attitude includes an orientation of the organism to the world of objects about it, a certain amount of tension even when it is latent, uniformity in direction and variation in intensity, and the fact that an attitude is rooted in experience. Williams (94) wrote that motives result from inherited traits that become adapted to life in the group in accordance with group attitudes and ideas. Young (99) gave us an analysis of the types of attitudes and of the relation of attitudes to other phenomena such as the object, the occupations, and the opinions. In a later publication (100) he took up the problems of the nature of attitudes, of the changes of attitudes, the types, and their relation to opinions, habits, emotions, and other functions.

Literature on specific problems of attitudes is as follows. Lasswell (46) pointed out that measurement should be understood in the light of our fundamental conceptions of public opinion such as the

extent, direction, intensity, effect, and the formative factors in public opinion. Thurstone (86) tried to convince his readers that attitudes can be measured. He described the construction of an attitude scale by the use of the method of equal appearing intervals. Rice (72) has a discussion on a method proposed by Thurstone. Murphy and Murphy (60) made a distinction between a sociological approach to attitudes and a psychological study of attitudes and discussed some of the applications of the measurement technique. Lundberg (53) analyzed some of the methods of studying attitudes such as the life-history documents, the oral interview, and the rating scales.

Thomas in one of his publications (80) made a very brief reference to attitudes, but he stated that the problem of society is to produce the right attitudes in its members. Burgess (20) observed that conflicts between family and community standards lead to conflicts between parents and children. This indicates how the family is influenced by the community of which it is a part, and the family in turn is exerting its influence on personal attitudes.

The relation of attitudes to the redirection of behavior was treated by Bernard (11). Faris (30) discussed the relation of attitudes to behavior, repudiating the behavioristic theory of Bain. In a later publication (31) he pointed out that attitudes are general and do not lead to any specific acts. Attitudes will not predict what a man will do in a crisis. According to Reuter (70) the importance of attitude lies in the fact that it determines the behavior of the person and provides the mechanism of social control.

The last problem under review here is the relation of attitudes to personality change. Murphy and Murphy (60) introduced a brief discussion of the methods for producing changes in attitudes. Park and Miller (66) dealt with changes in attitudes relating to dress and manners and the deeper changes regarding such values as religion and the Americans. Finally, Young (98) gave an interesting discussion of the rôle that attitudes play in the balance and imbalance of personality.

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## NEWS AND NOTES

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*Membership of the American Sociological Society.*—The new members received into the Society since the November issue and up to November 15 are as follows:

Ackerman, Lulu E., Applington, Iowa  
Bagars, B. Virginia, 264 Bickley Ave., Glenside, Pa.  
Baker, Caroline, 119 South Maplewood, Peoria, Ill.  
Balint, Louis, Crozer Campus, Chester, Pa.  
Beers, Howard W., New York State College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N.Y.  
Bergeson, Merle W., Box 484, Seminary Hill, Texas  
Bozeman, W. B., 1233 New Jersey St., Lawrence, Kan.  
Brown, G. W., Supervising Principal, Waterloo Public Schools, Waterloo, Wis.  
Bryant, Ira Babington, Jr., 3319 Holman Ave., Houston, Tex.  
Campbell, Wallace J., 1590 High St., Eugene, Ore.  
Carey, Clifford M., 4251 Irving Park Blvd., Chicago  
Choate, L. W., 518 Tennessee St., Lawrence, Kan.  
Clarke, Roger T., Bolenge, D.C.C.M., Congo Belge, W.C. Africa (via Coquilhatville)  
Clevenger, Josephine, 21 Orchard Place, Muncie, Ind.  
Cornell, B. Dean, 1108 Hinman Ave., Evanston, Ill.  
Cornwall, Claude C., Indiana School, Phoenix, Ariz.  
Covello, Leonard, 840 Mott Ave., Bronx, N.Y.  
Dickins, Dorothy, Mississippi State College, State College, Miss.  
Dodge, Rebekah Cassard (Mrs.), 336 Reamer Place, Oberlin, Ohio  
Ellickson, John C., Room 328, Social Science Bldg., University of Chicago, Chicago  
Hamm, Mary K., 112 South Jackson Ave., Kansas City, Mo.  
Harding, Henry, 2942 Bell Ave., St. Louis, Mo.  
Hartung, Frank E., 938 West Forest, Detroit, Mich.  
Harvey, John S. C. (Mrs.), Radnor, Pa.  
Herriott, Frank W., 99 Claremont Ave., New York City  
Hopkins, Wayne L., 1434 Lombard St., Philadelphia, Pa.  
Hulseman, Bertha F., 130 East Twenty-second St., New York City  
Irwin, Ralph A., University of Nevada, Reno, Nev.  
Jacobs, Herman, Y.M.H.A., Lexington Ave. at Ninety-second St., New York City  
Johnson, Julia Mac. Phillis Wheatley Association, Cleveland, Ohio  
Kelly, Hugh J., 330 W. Forty-second St., New York City

- Kirtland, Lois, Gates Hall, University of Chicago, Chicago  
 Koehler, Marie E., 170 Maria Ave., St. Paul, Minn.  
 Lewis, Louise, 1919 Cullerton St., Chicago  
 Lorden, Doris M., 215 North Austin Blvd., Chicago  
 McCall, John T., Villanova College, Villanova, Pa.  
 McCouch, H. G. (Mrs.), Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pa.  
 McIlvain, Edwin H., Budd Mfg. Co., Twenty-fifth and Hunting Park Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Merrill, Francis Ellsworth, 5649 Woodlawn Ave., Chicago  
 Morgan, Helen Elizabeth, 940 South Crouse Ave., Syracuse, N.Y.  
 Morris, True, 650 Twelfth Ave. East, Eugene, Ore.  
 Muntz, Harold R., 2368 Victory Parkway, Cincinnati, Ohio  
 Nieminen, Ida M., Mikonkatu 18, E. 28, Helsinki, Finland  
 O'Day, Emma M. (Mrs.), 27 Hawkins Ave., Hamburg, N.Y.  
 Piotrowski, Sylvester A., Box 934, Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.  
 Repke, Arthur, 118 Virginia St., Elmhurst, Ill.  
 Roucek, Joseph S., 10 South Liberal Arts Bldg., State College, Pa.  
 Schwitalla, Father Alphonse M., 1402 South Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Mo.  
 Shapiro, Charlotte H. (Mrs.), 613 North St. Clair St., Pittsburgh, Pa.  
 Smith, T. Lynn, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La.  
 Somers, William, 149 White St., Danbury, Conn.  
 Spenker, Edna C., Box 662, Pendleton, Ore.  
 Springer, Ethel M., 708 Spruce St., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Steggert, J. Albert, 3319 Brownsville Road, Brentwood, Pittsburgh, Pa.  
 Stoltz, Harlin J., 101 East Phoenix Ave., Normal, Ill.  
 Stonorov, Oscar G., 2021 Chancellor St., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Wann, Harry A., Madison High School, Madison, N.J.

*American Sociology Series.*—The American Book Company announce the publication of *The Community and Society: An Introduction to Sociology*, by Professor Loran D. Osborn of the Los Angeles Institute of Family Relations, and Professor Martin H. Neumeyer of the University of Southern California. This is the first volume in the American Sociology Series, under the general editorship of Dr. Kimball Young of the University of Wisconsin.

*Government Statistics.*—The Committee on Government Statistics and Information Services, appointments to which for the quarter ending September 30 were made jointly by the President of the American Statistical Association and the Executive Director of the Social Science Research Council, has been reconstituted for the autumn quarter of 1933. Willard L. Thorp and Stuart A. Rice, members during the summer quarter, have

accepted appointments to government positions, the former as Director of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce and the latter as Assistant Director of the Census.

The reconstituted committee now consists of Edmund E. Day, Chairman, Meredith B. Givens, Executive Secretary, Robert E. Chaddock, Morris A. Copeland, W. L. Crum, and Bryce M. Stewart. The members of the Washington staff of the Committee now include: Viva Boothe, Ewan Clague, John H. Cover, Morris A. Copeland, Edward R. Gray, Meredith B. Givens, William M. Hoad, Joseph B. Hubbard, Murray W. Latimer, Jacob Perlman, George W. Stocking, Tracy E. Thompson, Sydney W. Wilcox, and Helen Wright. M. R. Benedict of the Giannini Foundation of the University of California will join the staff on October 2, to represent the Committee in the field of agricultural statistics. Others who have served the Committee for limited periods of time include the following: J. Frederic Dewhurst, Constant Southworth, Margaret Klem, Edna Lonigan, Hilding Anderson, Woodlief Thomas, Warren Thompson.

The Committee on Government Statistics is represented on the Central Statistical Board by Meredith B. Givens. The services of Morris A. Copeland have been loaned by the Committee to the Board to enable him to serve the latter as its Executive Secretary. A full report of the work of the Committee during the first two quarters of its activity will be presented at the annual meeting of the Statistical Association at Philadelphia in December.

On July 27, 1933, by executive order of President Roosevelt, a Central Statistical Board was established. This Board is empowered "to appraise and advise upon all schedules of all government agencies engaged in the primary collection of statistics required in carrying out the purposes of the National Industrial Recovery Act, to review plans for tabulation and classification of such statistics, and to promote the coordination and improvement of the statistical services involved." It will not itself engage in the collection, compilation, or analysis of data. The staff is headed by the Board's Executive Secretary, Morris A. Copeland. The scope of the activities of the Board is reflected in the committees of the Board as follows: Nominations; Common Interests of the Census, National Recovery Administration, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics; Reporting of Statistics under Codes of Fair Competition; Construction Statistics; Review of Schedules and Tabulation Proposals; Maintenance of Statistical Services; Unemployment Statistics; Central Tabulation; Retail Price Statistics. Circular 706, containing information regarding the Board, is available at Room 7026, Commerce Building, Washington, D.C.

*Institute of International Education.*—A limited number of fellowships and assistantships are offered, under the international student exchanges of the Institute of International Education, to American students, for graduate study abroad. Applications in most cases must be filed on or before January 15. Address Secretary, Student Bureau, Institute of International Education, 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City.

*International Institute of Sociology.*—The Eleventh Congress of the Institute was held at Geneva, October 16–23, 1933. The total attendance, including members, associates, and guests, was about fifty. Switzerland had the largest representation, with France and Germany second and third. The official language was French, but some discussion took place in German, English, and Italian. The topics assigned for the discussion were “La Prévision sociologique” and “l’Habitat humain.” There were some ninety papers sent in, most of them devoted to the first-mentioned topic. Among those who took part in the discussions were Professors Chalupny of Brno, Stahl of Bucharest, Bouglé of Paris, and von Wiese of Cologne. The secretary of the Congress summarized the conclusions on “La Prévision sociologique” in seven points:

1. Sociological prevision is possible; it applies to abstract forms; such prevision may be verified in particular cases;
2. It is not reducible to demographic extrapolations or projections of statistical trends; it implies careful research and the exact measurement and evaluation of well-defined probabilities;
3. In economic sociology (or political economy or social economics) it is vitally important to guard against the errors resulting from so-called “business barometers”; prevision must be based upon a thorough analysis of all the social, political, juridical, moral factors;
4. In political and juridical sociology, the necessary preliminary study of structures, of aspirations, of more or less durable states of decay or integration, of persistent trends and of collective ideal ends will make it possible to offer guidance to statesmen and parliaments;
5. In religious and educational sociology, prevision depends for the most part on introspection by genuinely religious persons and by educators (who must, of course, be aware of the different social structures in process of evolution);
6. In social pathology and criminology, we must beware of the illusions involved in the affirmation or denial of supposed increases or decreases in pathological conditions or criminality; the latter varies with time and place;
7. Always in applied sociology, prevision must take into account its own effect upon future activity and the reciprocal reactions of thought and action.

In administrative session the Congress elected Professor Leopold von Wiese president for the coming year and conferred an honorary presidency

upon the venerable Professor Gaston Richard, who has been president for the past three years. Professor Th. Ruyssen of the University of Bordeaux was elected President for the year 1934-35. For the year 1935-36, Professor Charles A. Ellwood of Duke University was elected president, Professor P. A. Sorokin of Harvard University was elected first vice-president, and Professor Florian Znaniecki of Columbia University was elected second vice-president. The topic chosen for the next Congress was social structure and the elementary forms of social life.

*National Probation Association.*—The publication of the new Year Book of the National Probation Association for 1932 and 1933 has just been announced. Copies may be obtained by addressing the National Probation Association, 450 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

*Sociology Division of the Southwestern Social Science Association.*—The annual meeting of the Sociology Section of the Southwestern Social Science Association met in Dallas, Texas, at the Baker Hotel, April 14-15. Professor T. C. McCormick of the University of Arkansas was general chairman of the division, and Mattie Lloyd Wooten of the Texas State College for Women was secretary.

Following the suggestion of the American Sociological Society, papers in regard to the extent of the teaching of sociology occupied a prominent place on the program. The result of the research was gratifying, indicating that sociology is finding its place in the institutions of the Southwest.

Resolutions of the meeting included a protest against the attitude assumed by Texas Christian University of Fort Worth for discontinuing the department of sociology and the services of Professor William C. Smith.

The attendance this year was slightly under that of last year, but the interest and type of work reflected in the papers showed much improvement. Mapheus Smith of the University of Kansas was elected chairman of the 1935 meeting and Alvin Goode of the Louisiana State Teachers College, secretary.

*Beckley College.*—George E. Hartmann, formerly on the faculty of the State College at Montgomery, West Virginia, has been appointed Dean of the recently organized Beckley College, sponsored by the business men of Beckley, West Virginia.

*University of Southern California.*—The University of Southern California has appointed to teach sociology at Birmingham-Southern College for the year 1933-34.

*Bryn Mawr College.*—The Sociological Press, Hanover, N.H., has issued "Mother's Assistance in Philadelphia: Actual and Potential Costs," by Elizabeth L. Hall. This study, done under the direction of Dr. Susan M. Kingsbury, appears as a volume in the Social Economy Series of the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research of Bryn Mawr College.

The *Journalism Quarterly*, Iowa City, Iowa, is issuing in serial form "Measuring the Ethics of American Newspapers," by Susan M. Kingsbury, Hornell Hart, and Associates. The first chapter appeared in the issue of June, 1933 (Volume X, Number 2), the second chapter in the issue of September, 1933 (Volume X, Number 3), and other chapters will follow in successive issues.

*Massachusetts State College.*—The department of economics, history, and sociology, of which Professor Frederick Morse Cutler is the chairman, has recently issued a mimeographed list of "Recent and Current Research Projects, 1933-34." Thirty-four projects are entered and classified under General, Group Education, Race, Group Activity, Group Competition, and Group Control.

*University of North Dakota.*—The American Book Company announces the publication of *Current Social Problems*, by J. M. Gillette, professor of sociology, University of North Dakota, and J. M. Reinhardt, associate professor of sociology, University of Nebraska.

Dr. Jacob Perlman, associate professor of sociology, has been granted a leave of absence to work with the Committee on Government Statistics and Information Service in Washington, D.C.

Mr. A. R. Mangus has returned to the University after having spent two years in graduate study at the University of Wisconsin.

*University of Oklahoma.*—Wyatt Marrs, Associate Professor of Sociology, is the author of *An Outline and Notebook for Introductory Sociology*, a series of five books, published by Harlow Publishing Company. These books are based on Gillin and Blackmar's *Outlines of Sociology*, Case's *Outlines of Introductory Sociology*, Beach's *Introduction to Sociology and Social Problems*, Binder's *Principles of Sociology*, Hankins' *Introduction to the Study of Society*, and Lumley's *Principles of Sociology*.

*Municipal University of Omaha.*—The Bureau of Social Research announces the publication of *Studies in Urban Sociology*, by Dr. T. Earl Sullenger.



*University of Pittsburgh.*—Miss Margaret C. Miller, who has taken graduate training at Columbia, Clark, and Indiana universities, and the New York School of Social Work, has been added to the staff of the University of Pittsburgh as instructor in social work and assistant director of field work.

*Southern Methodist University.*—Dr. Walter T. Watson, who gave courses in sociology at the University of Texas during the past summer, has been granted a year's leave of absence to accept an appointment as Research Associate in the University of Texas Bureau of Research in the Social Sciences. The specific grant is for a study of "Urbanization in Texas." During his absence Dr. Kenneth E. Barnhart of Birmingham Southern University will take Dr. Watson's courses in Dallas.

*Yale University.*—The Institute of Human Relations announces the publication of *Observational Studies of Social Behavior*, Volume I, *Social Behavior Patterns*, by Dorothy Swaine Thomas, Alice M. Loomis, and Ruth E. Arrington, with the assistance of Eleanor C. Isbell.

#### PERSONAL NOTE

Dr. Bernhard J. Stern, Assistant Editor of the Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences, asks that publicity be given to his repudiation of the authorship of a book by "Dr. Bernhard Stern," entitled *The Scented Garden*, which some persons have attributed to him, owing to the odd and unfortunate coincidence of names.

## BOOK REVIEWS

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*Principles of Sociology.* By E. T. HILLER. New York and London: Harper & Bros., 1933. Pp. xx+661. \$3.50.

*Introduction to Sociology.* By E. B. REUTER and C. W. HART. New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. x+548. \$3.50.

New textbooks designed for use in introductory college courses in sociology have been appearing from the presses in the past few years at such a rapid rate that it is difficult for a reviewer to find something new to say about each one without descending to minor details. These two new specimens are, however, both creditable productions, and both will probably find extensive adoption.

Professor Hiller's *Principles of Sociology* may be described as a textbook of the formal type; it is quite properly titled "principles" of sociology, and is characterized by the author's excellent logical definition and distinction of conceptual terms. It is, in general plan and outline, as original as a new textbook could well be while adhering to the main lines of thought that are becoming established among American sociologists. The book is provided with abundant footnote citations of references and authority for statements made, with rather extensive alphabetical chapter bibliographies, and with adequate author and subject indexes. It contains no questions or other "teaching helps." Hiller uses illustrative matter, chiefly historical and ethnological, only in very brief form. He states that his main point of view or approach to the subject is "the analysis of societal forms and their bearing on individual behavior," rather than the study of society in terms of stimulus and response, interaction, sensory impressions, or physiological equivalents. The book is divided into nine main parts, as follows: I, Social Relations and Institutions; II, Society as Communication; III, Mutual Aid and Coöperation—The Functional Patterns; IV, The Spatial Structure of Society; V, Conflict and the Social Structure; VI, Social Change; VII, Social Disorganization; VIII, The Person in Relation to Culture and the Social Organization; IX, The Needs and Methods of Social Control. There are thirty-nine chapters in all.

Reuter and Hart's *Introduction to Sociology* is a textbook based obviously on Park and Burgess. It amplifies the Park and Burgess Table of

Contents, however, by the addition of chapters on "The Social Heritage," and "The Social Institutions"; by the expansion of the discussion of "Social Control" into two chapters, and of "Collective Behavior" into three chapters; and by the elimination of the chapter on "Progress." It differs from Professor Lumley's *Principles of Sociology* in that Reuter and Hart have followed Park and Burgess almost exclusively, and have avoided ethical evaluations; while it contrasts with Dawson and Gettys' *Introduction to Sociology* in being a more coherent, closely knit, abstract text, relatively lacking in quoted "materials." Some of Reuter and Hart's chapters are so abstract as to present difficulties for the average college sophomore, but on the whole this is an incisive, straightforward presentation of sociological theory within the grasp of undergraduates. There are chapter bibliographies, questions for class discussion, exercises, and an index. The volume is substantially bound in the familiar McGraw-Hill grey-green buckram.

Both of these are good textbooks; each needs to be supplemented through lectures or collateral readings, or both, by additional concrete illustrative material. Neither would serve well as the textbook for a very elementary course. Students will probably find Hiller easier to follow without the aid of lectures or classroom discussion than Reuter and Hart; the author's explanations are somewhat more clearly and carefully worked out. Reuter and Hart's statements, on the other hand, are a bit more provocative. No one will go far wrong in adopting either book as the foundation for a college course for fairly mature students.

FLOYD N. HOUSE

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

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*Précis d'une Sociologie.* By O. LEMARIÉ. Paris: Félix Alcan, 1933. Pp. vii + 192.

This little book, written in plain language without technical terminology and with a minimum of historical references, is intended for the general public, and it aims at popularizing the findings which can be considered as definitely secured in the field of sociology.

Mr. Lemarié breaks off with the Durkheimian tradition on every point, on the social origin of religion, of morals and of the intellectual categories, on social determinism, etc., . . . not as a positivist, who would believe those questions unanswerable, but as a dogmatist himself who takes a standpoint diametrically opposed to that of the "Année Sociologique." He holds that "the only reality is the individual who, driven by social needs and inter-

gence, constitutes a society in order to enrich his personality and to protect his liberties. Such involuntary mechanism as imitation and sympathy help him in furthering this task. The definition of the social fact derives from the same trends of thought: social facts are actions which result essentially from a disposition of the individual to solidarity. In the same way, the germ of all the products of social interaction, even of etiquette, can be found in the individual mind. The limitations of this work are so conspicuous that they need not be stressed here. Many of its definitions are verbal, and it does not even avoid the *petitio principii* where it assumes, as primitive factors of sociability, needs and drives which are already largely social in character. Most of these limitations proceed, on the first hand, from the attempt to answer questions more relevant to metaphysics than to sociology, as that of the origins of society, and, on the other hand, from a complete lack of distinction between the individual or animal and the person. The author pays attention, incidentally, to a question which has not received much consideration in France till now, and which his principles allow him to deal with adequately—that of social change.

ROBERT MARJOLIN

PARIS, FRANCE

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*Grundformen sozialer Spielregeln: Eine soziologisch-ethische Grundlegung der Sozialpädagogik.* By JOSEPH PIEPER. Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder and Company, 1933. Pp. viii+124. (Distributed in U.S.A. by B. Herder Book Co., 15 and 17 S. Broadway, St. Louis, Mo.) Paper, \$1.00.

While Dr. Pieper's *Grundformen sozialer Spielregeln* is frankly presented as a contribution to social ethics and *Sozialpädagogik* (the knowledge by which people may be guided in the practical exigencies of life) it is also a contribution to the logic and grammar of sociology. He has undertaken to distinguish precisely, in the abstract, between six fundamental categories of human association, or associated action, and to formulate the types of interaction or "rules of the game" (*Spielregeln*) that are inherent in each of these six categories. The general scheme follows closely one laid down in various writings by Johann Plenge; Pieper claims a degree of originality only for the statement of the *Spielregeln*, and for his emphasis of the practical-ethical principle that none of the six categories of association can be taken exclusively as a norm or desideratum.

The six forms of associated behavior in the Plenge scheme are grouped in two broader categories: "circles" (*Kreise*) and "groups" (*Gruppen*),

the term "group" being used, however, in a sense diametrically opposite to that prevailing in current American sociology. "Circles" include community, society (these two categories being taken approximately in the sense of Tönnies), and organization; they are the forms of association in which there is a definite consensus; the bond uniting the members is of relatively great depth (*Hafttiefe*.) The forms of the "group" are the crowd, the system of forces (*Kräfte-system*—in which there is interdependence, but in which the self-assertion of the individuals concerned strains and destroys the connection between them, as illustrated in the extreme case by a war to the death), and the division of labor not supported by the consensus of those involved (*Gliederungsgefüge*). These latter three forms are alike in the absence of subjective assent to the association, or consensus. The three forms of "circle" parallel the three forms of "group," being characterized by the predominance in them of the same three respective traits of the members: in the community and the crowd, it is the *common* human nature that dominates the associated behavior; in the "society" and the "system of forces" it is self-assertion and self-consciousness (*Einzelhafte*); in the "organization" and the unconscious division of labor (*Gliederungsgefüge*) it is the separate and *special* characteristics of the members, their differences (*Besonderes*). "Organization" is distinguished from mere division of labor by the presence of a common purpose and plan to which all assent.

One may not find himself in complete agreement with Plenge and Pieper, but he can scarcely deny that the careful formulation of such distinctions as these is helpful and promotes clear thinking on sociological problems. Dr. Pieper's arguments against making any one of the three, "community," "society," and "organization," the norm to be sought in all human association, are suggestive.

FLOYD N. HOUSE —

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

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*Fourier*. By E. POISSON. Paris: Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. 156. 15 Fr.

This is a new volume in the series *Reformateurs Sociaux*, published under the supervision of M. C. Bouglé. It contains a number of texts selected from the chief works of Fourier, and an introduction written by M. E. Poisson, one of the leaders of the consumers' co-operative movement in France.

The progress of Marxism as the social philosophy of the working-class organizations has relegated to the background the other socialist theories which have flourished before, and especially, in France, the "association-

ist" schemes of St. Simon and Fourier. The society contemplated by the latter is a society of small agricultural producers who, by organizing themselves, will eliminate the waste which comes from lack of planning. Industry is considered only as an accessory and a complement. Fourierism is not a revolutionary theory, the purpose of which is to give to the working class ownership of the means of production and exchange and leadership in social affairs. On the one side, it keeps social inequality and divides income in proportion to capital, labor, and ability; on the other, it does not aim at any political reform but is content with economic measures which can take place under any government, without requiring its assistance. Its inspiration is distinctly philanthropic and moral. It appeals to the wealthy individual to fight destitution, unemployment, fraud, commercial monopoly, etc.

This system of social reformation is not without its analogues in anarchist theories. Its central and dynamic idea is that of a society without compulsion. Its goal is not to abolish or change human passions. On the contrary, since all evils come from the fact that they are repressed, it is necessary to give them full vent by utilizing them as one utilizes natural forces, and by directing them in such a way as to make labor one of their objects.

As M. E. Poisson notes in his remarkable introduction, one cannot say that Fourier is the father of either the consumers' or producers' co-operative movement. These bore the capitalist society from within and aim at supplanting it gradually, while the "phalanstère" creates a new total self-sufficient world as soon as it is born.

Among other important traits of the ideal society may be mentioned the infinite progress of the division of labor. One also finds in these pages an explanation of how social classes are formed by differences in cultural milieus.

These are the most important traits of this system as they appear among the innumerable fancies with which Fourier has surrounded them. The well-selected texts given in this book will enable anyone who has neither the time nor the courage to tackle the full works to know this original social reformer who, if he has not left many things valuable to modern thought, has nevertheless his place in the ranks of those who have protested against social injustice.

Let us add that an unhappy mistake in binding the book deprives the reader of four chapters which, according to the Table of Contents, were devoted to the criticism of civilization.

ROBERT MARJOLIN

PARIS, FRANCE

*Les dogmes sexuels.* By ADRIENNE SAHUQUÉ. Paris: Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. xii+375. 30 Fr.

This is a new contribution to our knowledge of the mechanisms by which human ideologies are generated. It does not deal, as its title would lead one to believe, with the sexual theories in general, but only with those concerned with the respective rôle of man and woman in procreation. It has the merit of stating the problem with a rare clarity, so that its reading will be very profitable, even if one does not agree with the proposed solution.

The problem is the contradiction existing between the philosophic and popular allegation of the physiological inferiority of woman, and the findings of genetics and cytology, the negative character of which compels the scientist to confess his ignorance in this matter. Since biology does not justify the clear-cut statements which, from antiquity and throughout our civilization, have, in slightly modified forms, pretended to solve the question, it remains to explain why so permanent and universal an error, or unfounded affirmation, has been possible. The logical solidity of this first part is perfect and can be utilized independently of the rest of the book.

So far as the second part is concerned, we are obliged to make certain reservations about the dogmatic character of some of the theories, which social science does not always uphold and which endanger seriously the validity of the solution. The least one can say of the postulates of a unilateral evolution from economic and sexual communism to private property and monogamy, of inborn racial traits which have stopped the progress of certain cultures, of the universal precedence of matriarchal societies over patriarchal ones and of a few others, is that their use lacks cautiousness. The sexual dogmas referred to may be, as it is asserted, a rationalization of masculine supremacy, secured through war and the rape of women slaves, but the argumentation is more earnest than convincing.

Barring this weakness, this book will remain as a necessary starting-point for the student concerned with the social aspects of sexual problems, as much for its unambiguous exposition of the question as for the richness and variety of the materials it contains.

ROBERT MARJOLIN

PARIS, FRANCE

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*The Natural Laws of Social Convulsion.* By SIDNEY A. REEVE. New York: W. C. Sullivan & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. 100. \$1.00.

THIS IS A BOOK FOR SLAVE MASTERS, NOT SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS. "These misteachers leave the pupil utterly misled." "In the universities

miseducation is their chief business in sociology." "The miseducation which the universities call sociology." "A study of cause and effect in sociology is universally abhorred." There are at least a hundred other expressions in a similar vein.

*Tu quoque* is easy. The author's history is full of inexcusable inaccuracies. His "Social Energetics as a Science" belongs to the days of physiocracy. His historical materialism is more stark than that of Marx. His forty-five "natural or cosmic laws" are some platitudinous, some dubious, and some false. His "Invisible, Automatic, Superconscious Fund of Energy" is a cheap and vulgar caricature of the God of Calvinism.

Yet the patrons who made the publication of this book possible deserve thanks. Mr. Reeve is an electrical engineer. He is enraged that social science is not as advanced as physical science. His indignant anger is a useful prod to progress even though it causes him to write bad history and worse sociology.

LYFORD P. EDWARDS

ST. STEPHEN'S COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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*The Social Universe.* By ARTHUR WALLACE CALHOUN. New York: The Vanguard Press, 1932. Pp. 171. \$1.75.

This is a popular presentation of some of the elements of sociological theory, mixed with a large dose of the economic interpretation of social forces and a small amount of propaganda for communism. The author states that "it is time that sociology should be thoroughly rewritten in terms of the economic interpretation of history," and that "the present plight of sociology in the United States is due to the fact that our capitalistic system does not dare look at itself in any comprehensive fashion."

The chapters that deal with the social conditioning of personality are excellently done and put this phase of sociological thought in very readable form for the general reader. But it is unfortunate that so well equipped a sociologist as Professor Calhoun should become so obsessed with one factor of the social process (the economic) as to fail to see that in dealing with the family, religion, art, race relations, science, education, there are many other factors quite as significant as the economic.

The uncritical handling of the class struggle, capitalism, and communism reveals the spirit of the special pleader rather than that of the scientist.

CECIL C. NORTH

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY



*Our Social World.* By GRACE A. WALLIS and WILSON D. WALLIS.  
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+378. \$1.60.

This is a secondary school text in the publishers' Social and Commercial Studies Series. It is to be classified, however, as a distinctly sociology text rather than as one devoted to general social studies. The two characteristic features of the volume are its cultural and its historical approach. The student's attention is held to a concrete world of realities, but this world is seen in a historical perspective and as a system of human relations, clothed in particular behavior patterns.

Approximately two-fifths of the volume is given to sociological theory and population, a little less than one-half to the fundamental social institutions, and a little less than one-fifth to social pathology and public health.

In the judgment of the reviewer, this is one of the most successful sociology texts for secondary schools that has appeared. It succeeds in presenting fundamental sociological data without resort to abstractions, and at the same time without talking down to the student. It is concrete and has excellent balance and proportion. The study helps and suggestions are particularly well done. One unique feature is the suggestive questions accompanying the illustrations.

CECIL C. NORTH

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

*The Ordeal of Western Religion.* By PAUL HUTCHINSON. Boston:  
Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. xv+139. \$1.50.

Religion may be studied in a purely scientific spirit, as an element, or factor, in the social process; it may be employed as concrete material in the elaboration of abstract theological systems; and again, it may be viewed as a force which either buttresses or pulls down the social order. Mr. Hutchinson, sympathizing with economic radicalism, believes that the churches inherit from antiquity a pacifist, anti-militarist, socialistic impulse, once for all delivered to the saints, which is at war with conventional civilization. On this theory is based his treatment of religion as an "ordeal." He is well versed in the higher criticism of the New Testament; and his book will be valuable to scientific sociologists who are interested in the problem of group control.

NEW YORK CITY

*Les deux sources de la morale et de la religion.* By HENRI BERGSON.  
Paris: Librairie Félix Alcan, 1932. Pp. 346. 25 Fr.

The two sources of religion and morality, according to the renowned French philosopher, are the social order and the creative spirit of the individual. The social order gives rise to the religion of conformity, the priestly type. The creativeness of the individual gives rise to the religion of progress, the prophetic type. Hence, after a chapter on the source of moral obligation, M. Bergson devotes the major part of his book to a discussion of static religion, the religion which sanctifies custom, and dynamic religion, the religion of the ideal. He emphasizes the need of dynamic religion in the modern world.

To the student who is familiar with the history and philosophy of religion there is little new in this book. It has been a commonplace of the students of religion that its sources are to be found in the tendency to sanctify custom on the one hand, and in the tendency to idealism on the other hand. Nevertheless, this is not a commonplace book. It is a masterly summing up of the social philosophy of religion which has been gradually taking shape in the minds of psychologists, anthropologists, and sociologists; and it is written with a literary charm which few of the books of its class possess. It is to be hoped that it will soon be translated into English.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*The Process of Religion: Essays in Honor of Dean Shailer Mathews.*  
Edited by MILES H. KRUMBINE. New York: Macmillan Co.,  
1933. Pp. viii+266. \$2.25.

Consisting of twelve scholarly essays by eleven professors and one pastor, this volume cannot, of course, be adequately treated in the brief space necessarily given to it. Dr. Mathews is a pioneer among those recognizing religion as a phase, or factor, in the process of social evolution and not as a mere bundle of belief and ritual, standing out of organic relation to history. Ecclesiastical thinkers have awakened more and more to the social significance of religion and theology; while at the same time social science, which took its rise in the arid atmosphere of nineteenth-century rationalism, has become increasingly aware of its own interest in religion as an outstanding fact of collective human experience. Sociological scholars, therefore, will welcome this book, which gives a cross-section of today's religion among progressive thinkers. Without prejudice to essays of equal merit, which cannot be mentioned for lack of space, the fol-

lowing will be found of special value: "Theology and the Social Process," a sketch of the development of Dean Mathews' thought, by E. E. Aubrey; "Whither Historicism in Theology," by S. J. Case; "Confused Protestantism," by J. W. Nixon; "The Social and the Individual in Religion," by D. A. McGregor; "The New Testament and the Origin of Jesus," a study in social interpretation, by E. W. Parsons; and "The Renaissance of Religion," by A. E. Haydon.

LOUIS WALLIS

NEW YORK CITY

*Lincoln: A Psycho-Biography.* By L. PIERCE CLARK. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933. Pp. xiv+570. \$3.50.

Lincoln as a public leader in the last years of his life was firm, slow, and persuasive rather than explosive, quick, and arrogant. As an object of authority he was reacted to by the people on the basis of their total past history of contact with authority objects in the family, the school, and the locality. Since Lincoln's personality fused "paternal" domineering traits with "maternal" solicitude, he was able to draw support from the people on the basis of their past experience with "maternal" as well as "paternal" objects. This type of leadership rôle was well adapted to the task of unifying the heterogeneous individualists of the North against the compact ruling élite of the South. Lincoln's gentleness made it much easier to secure acquiescence in the exercise of executive power in a community which was historically hyper-suspicious of the executive. Lincoln was adept in using language which combined firmness with reassurance; thus he won the Republican nomination over Seward largely because Seward had spoken aggressively of the "higher law" while Lincoln spoke of the "moral codes" to supplement law. Both phraseologies meant that war might follow, but Lincoln's language assuaged anxieties in a country not yet able to reconcile itself to war. Lincoln withheld his proclamation of emancipation until much sentiment had been built up for it. He characteristically carried people with him; others tried to coerce or to rush them.

The genetic history of a personality capable of playing such a rôle in crises is indicated in Dr. L. Pierce Clark's examination of Lincoln from the standpoint of psychoanalysis. Dr. Clark is a successful and respected practitioner of psychoanalysis, and his book makes entirely competent use of modern concepts, most of which are those of Freud, Abraham, and Beda. Lincoln's life involves in the erotic and egoistic spheres one of the most dramatic and successful cases of the development of the ego from early childhood and after. Lincoln's over-possessiveness in relation to

sexual objects is the basis of his severe neurotic depressions; he is gradually able to displace his unsatisfied cravings upon the cause of "union." Repressed aggressions against the father lend rigor to his conscience, and handicap his public career until he is slowly able to overcome intimidations. The discussion of this varied personality enables Dr. Clark to summarize the psychoanalytical theories of humor, religion, depression, and many other reactions. The concreteness of the material will no doubt enable many non-analysts to catch some inkling of the meaning of the technical vocabulary of psychoanalysis. There is no question that Dr. Clark's *Lincoln* is in a class by itself among political "psycho-biographies."

HAROLD D. LASSWELL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Propaganda Menace.* By FREDERICK E. LUMLEY. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. ix+454.

Since most of what I have to say about Professor Lumley's textbook might be construed to be adversely critical, let me begin by saying that if the object of a college textbook about propaganda is to familiarize the student with the fact that propaganda has been often found in history, and that it is very prominent in contemporary industry, politics, and education, this book is to be commended. The author has a flair for picking illustrations which are sufficiently exciting to command the attention of the average citizen and Sophomore son, John.

If there are more exacting requirements, this book leaves something to be desired. Propaganda, however defined, is an aspect of social change, and beginning students are presumably entitled to a summary of the best thought, and a guide to the best thinkers, on the subject. Propaganda is intimately connected with the "ideological" rather than the "technological" aspects of social life, and there is an imposing legacy of significant analysis of the "ideological" to be found in the literature of social science. I refer to the distinctions originally drawn by Marx and Engels, and elaborated in the hands of Sorel, Max Weber, Pareto, and Karl Mannheim. Certainly Pareto's concepts of "derivations" and his examination of their relation to the "circulation of the élite" furnish analytical tools from which the student should scarcely be protected by the multiplication of quotations from lesser figures.

Modern research is more and more directed toward devising ways and means of testing the effectiveness of stimuli which are applied to influence reactions. There are studies of the relevance of electoral votes, legislative

votes, straw ballots, newspaper and periodical space, and many other possible indexes of shifts in attitude or opinion. It is doubtful if the writer of a textbook in 1933 is entitled to protect his readers from the critical consideration of modern measuring efforts, especially since the discipline of thinking about the relevance of these procedures is likely to leave a residue of objectivity toward the symbolic aspects of cultural processes.

Professor Lumley understands that "Propaganda is promotion which is veiled in one way or another as to (1) its origin or sources, (2) the interests involved, (3) the methods employed, (4) the content spread, and (5) the results accruing to the victims—any one, any two, any three, any four, or all five." This mode of defining the term affords ample scope for the copious use of a moralizing vocabulary; whether the effect is to facilitate the clear understanding of social relations or to indoctrinate the student with negative affects when the word "propaganda" is employed as a stimulus, one would like to know.

Whoever is reconciled to the prevailing standards of scholarly perspective and theoretical clarity in social science textbooks in the United States will find nothing particularly shocking in this one; he will welcome it as a body of writing about a theme of growing interest to laymen and specialists.

HAROLD D. LASSWELL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Democracy in Crisis.* By HAROLD J. LASKI. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1933. Pp. 267.

Frederick Engels, analyzing the condition of the working classes of England in the forties of the last century, wrote:

It is too late for a peaceful solution. The classes are divided more and more sharply, the spirit of resistance penetrates the workers, the bitterness intensifies, the guerilla skirmishes become concentrated in more important battles, and soon a slight impulse will suffice to set the avalanche in motion. Then, indeed, will the war-cry resound through the land: "War to the palaces, peace to the cottages!"—but then it will be too late for the rich to beware.

Professor Laski's recent diagnosis of the crisis of democracy in the fourth decade of our own century bears a striking resemblance to the prophetic utterances of Engels. Ninety years ago capitalist democracy in Britain was able to weather the storm and regain the loyalty of its workers through a concession of some or other better prospects and more political power. But the unparalleled expansion and prosperity of the

mid-Victorian era formed a tiding-over period, repetition of which appears extremely unlikely in the present generation. Professor Laski is frankly skeptical of the possibility of a peaceful adjustment in the present situation. He is a believer in representative government and parliamentary procedure; he is also fully aware of the costs of revolution in a highly industrialized country such as England. But no class in history has parted readily with the power which it possessed. At the present juncture, the shifting balance points inevitably to abdication much more drastic than owners of property would be willing to stand for. The libertarian philosophy of political solution is being displaced rapidly in the onward march of democracy by the effective demand for equalitarian distribution.

The present crisis, as the author sees it, involves not alone the possible collapse of an economic order, but it also threatens to break down the very bulwarks of capitalist democracy itself. For the ruling classes, pressed to defend their prerogatives and property against an oncoming third estate, may discard the very democratic institutions and parliamentary procedures which have made possible, hitherto, their own preservation. When men are in conflict, the road to the right, or to the left for that matter, remains a highly dangerous and uncharted venture.

Professor Laski's contribution, though it bears the deep impress of British experience, forms a striking commentary upon trends in the Western state-system as a whole. To the Lilliputian critics of democracy who abound in our midst it offers a breadth of vision as well as incisive and detailed analysis worthy of careful study. To American political scientists, more particularly, a perusal of this volume must again make painfully evident the poverty of contemporary political thought in these United States.

S. MCKEE ROSEN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Principles and Problems of Right Thinking.* By EDWIN ARTHUR BURTT. Revised Edition. New York: Harper & Bros., 1931. Pp. 529. \$3.00.

The subtitle of this work "A Textbook for Logic, Reflective Thinking, and Orientation Courses" indicates its contemporary, American, and academic character. The materials treated in it are a fair example of the content of "general courses" which are rapidly displacing a number of more specialized courses in many of our leading colleges.

The risk, of course, of attempts to provide an introductory exposition of many of the crucial principles of thinking within the practical limits of a

textbook or an "orientation course" is the risk of superficial and one-sided disposition of certain of the most crucial principles themselves.

The older, traditional courses in logic are so patently decadent and obviously garbled misstatements of parts of Aristotle's *Organon* they are very properly being thrown out of the college curriculum.

One hesitates, however, to welcome the successor of the traditional superficiality which passed for the study of logic. The new "orientation" or "reflective thinking" courses attempt, for the most part, to provide an understanding of the highly complex and by no means impregnable doctrine which has been called "modern anthropocentric humanism," as reformulated by James, Dewey, and others. The content of these courses all too summarily pass over inadequately analyzed and seriously controversial material in psychology, epistemology, metaphysics, logic, grammar, the philosophy of art, ethics, and the nature of empirical science—to mention only a few of the major categories of subject matters involved in a study such as Professor Burt's.

When we add to the above enumeration an attempt to say something about statistics, the history of science, jurisprudence, and religion we might be reasonably dubious of the effectiveness of such courses in promoting "right thinking"; that is, if "right thinking" about any subject matter includes a clear and critical understanding of the first principles of that subject matter whether it be "thinking" or anything else. Perhaps it is due to our overanxiousness to inculcate "right thinking" that we fail to reckon with the difficulties and limitations involved. Before proceeding further it might be fruitful to return to a consideration of that basic, ancient question: "Can virtue be taught?"

ARTHUR L. H. RUBIN

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*The Underworld in American Politics.* By FLETCHER DOBYNS. New York: Fletcher Dobyns, Publisher, 1932. Pp. 211.

The title of this book is very misleading inasmuch as the author discusses Chicago politics and not American politics, and he fails to give a well-rounded view of the underworld. Mr. Dobyns shows a familiarity with the important personalities who have taken an active part in recent political struggles in Chicago, but he fails to use all the available newspaper material, public documents, and other data that might throw light on the subject. An ardent day he finds it difficult to adjust himself to the

Mr. Dobyns is extremely critical of the late Mayor Cermak. The old

not like the Mayor's past nor his recent administration cut short by death, but he failed to produce much concrete evidence as to the basis of his dislike. Plenty of material was at hand showing Mayor Cermak's disregard of his inaugural promises regarding civil service, constructive economy, and other civic matters. However, Mr. Dobyns overlooked these data. On the other hand, he endeavored to strengthen his argument by giving only the most favorable views of the civic organizations on whose reports he relied.

The picture of Chicago politics presented in this book is not a well-balanced one. It is a truism that machine politicians are not all bad and that reformers are not all good. The story of the present Democratic machine in Chicago, of its relations with big business men on the one hand and with the underworld on the other, is yet to be written. Mr. Dobyns has sketched some aspects of the situation.

HAROLD F. GOSNELL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Breakdown: The Collapse of Traditional Civilization.* By ROBERT BRIFFAULT. New York: Brentano's, 1932. Pp. 273. \$2.50.

Robert Briffault, the eminent anthropologist, has definitely espoused the radical economic and cultural program. But he brings to it all the erudition, charm, and urbanity which characterize his work in general. For this reason his *Breakdown* is an unusually persuasive presentation of the case for radicalism as against either conservatism or liberalism. It is probably surpassed only by Strachey's recent volume as an argument for the superiority and inevitability of the radical approach to cultural and economic reconstruction. While uncompromising in his general position, Briffault exhibits little of the crudity and dogmatism of the stereotyped Marxians. The reviewer has not yet lost his hope in a resolute liberalism, but no liberal can afford to dodge or ignore this book. Unless liberalism can answer Briffault's challenge, it might as well abandon the fight.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH  
NEW YORK CITY

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*The Populist Revolt.* By JOHN D. HICKS. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1932. Pp. xiii + 473.

Judging from the number of doctoral dissertations and masters' theses being written on the populist movement, this book will be welcomed by a growing number of research students as well as by the general reader.



The book is much more than a compilation from general sources. Much original material has been included.

An impressive amount of historical detail, interestingly stated, has been brought together, but a general sociological treatment of the subject remains, as yet, to be written. The interpretation of the Populist contribution given in the concluding chapter is at points misleading. The author betrays an undue optimism when he asserts: "Thanks to this triumph of Populist principles, one may almost say that, in so far as political devices can insure it, the people now rule. . . . On the whole, the acts of government have come to reflect fairly clearly the will of the people" (p. 422). One gains little insight into the nature of the problem from the observation that "if in the last analysis big business controls, it is because it has public opinion on its side and not merely the party bosses."

The book includes an appendix giving the platforms of various Alliance and Populist conventions and a good bibliography.

FREDERICK A. CONRAD

UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

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*The Birth of the Nations. From the Unity of Faith to the Democracy of Money.* By VALERIU MARCU. Translated by Eden and Cedar Paul. New York: Viking Press, 1932. Pp. 287. \$3.75.

The careers of dominant personalities, principles of the social changes, and critical dramatic situations of the Thirty Years War period, are here described in a brilliant, jerky style. "The tragedy of historical change . . . can always be reduced to the tragedy of an individual. The problems of an epoch are condensed into a restricted number of personalities, these becoming the medium of history" (pp. 11-12). By this method this book describes the metamorphosis of the Western world from Catholic unity to a congeries of bourgeois states. The frame of conceptions in which the interpretation is cast is largely drawn from German social philosophy and sociology, economic determinism, and the dialectic of history. Brief paragraphs of interpretative generalizations, epigrammatically and figuratively stated, intersperse the tale and give wide meaning to the characterizations. A spicy intimacy with the feelings and motives of the times is attained in the dramatization of the careers of notables who are shown to personify trends and conflicts of the period: Campanella, Descartes, Pascal, Richelieu, Wallenstein, Mazarin, and others who are more obscure.

HARMON HAYES

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*Our Obsolete Constitution.* By WILLIAM KAY WALLACE. New York: John Day Co., 1933. Pp. 226.

In this, the author who celebrated *The Passing of Politics* in 1924 now concludes that politics is perhaps still with us, and merely requires some other form of organization. He finds that the individual has been stripped of his defenses against governmental encroachment, that constitutional immunities are no longer valid, that our government has become in principle autocratic, and as a corollary that the constitution is obsolete (p. 155).

Mr. Wallace's solution is a new political constitution. Nine regional states (not described) replace the present forty-eight. Each regional state has from four to six representatives constituting a board of directors of the United States. This board selects from its members a president of the United States who will be responsible to the directorate. The board, however, will appoint all federal judicial and other officers. The board will also have legislative power, and there will be similar boards in each of the regional states. Under such a system he believes that economic liberty and security will be established, and the fruits of "scientific capitalism" and "scientific socialism" both utilized.

To suppose that so simple a solution will rid us of all the ills the body politic is heir to would test the credulity of one who has far greater faith in political mechanisms than Mr. Wallace. Nevertheless, the volume is interesting and useful in the process of rethinking the fundamentals of American political and economic life.

But at the same time it is important to observe that so eminent an authority in the field of public law as Edwin Corwin continues to repeat his assertion that, given concrete social plans with popular support, the existing constitution is easily capable of interpretation essential to their support and likely to be so construed.

CHARLES E. MERRIAM

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Zur Soziologie des Unternehmertums (The Sociology of the Entrepreneur).* By EUGEN SCHWIEDLAND. Leipzig: C. L. Hirschfeld Verlag, 1933. Pp. 52. RM. 2.20.

While the author of this volume devotes some space to definition of the entrepreneur and his functions, and to the development of the present forms of business enterprise, his concern is obviously with the problem of the control of business for the common good. His sympathies apparently

lie with the fascistic attempt to create organizations of entrepreneurs under the direction of the state. Instead of allowing powerful business enterprises to control the state, as under nineteenth-century liberalism, the state is to have the upper hand.

Representatives of the workers are to sit in council with those of the employers, all under supervision of the state. Thus will the divergent interests of the classes be harmonized for the good of all. This formula is not new, but it has taken a new lease on life in America as well as in Europe. The reviewer does not quite see how the difficulties inherent in the control of industry and in the struggle of the classes are to be overcome by this formula. The tragedy of the present, says the author, is the hidden power of "Geldleute," with whom "politicians of a certain sort" come too easily to an understanding. The reviewer does not see the guaranty that in the new state such understanding will be more difficult or less tragic.

Durkheim doubted whether any outside agency could long effectively control those engaged in any line of work or trade. God-called dictators may try it. But one may well suspect that even such a dictator will have to listen to other than divine voices when he has ceased to be an agitator and has become an administrator. That, according to Lincoln Steffens, is the fate of the reform politician. The dictator is the reform politician in pure essence. When he does listen to voices, they are likely to be those of persons who have vested interests in and intimate knowledge of the major business and industrial concerns of his country. The support of dictators by large industrialists is perhaps the most convincing and ironical evidence that these people expect to become the principals for whom the dictator will eventually become agent.

EVERETT C. HUGHES

MCGILL UNIVERSITY

*Economic Principles and Problems.* Edited by WALTER E. SPAHR. New York: Long & Smith, 1932. Vol. I, pp. ix+655. Vol. II, pp. 627. \$6.00.

Professor Spahr and his colleagues have written merely another elementary treatise, with all the usual chapter headings, and with more than the usual number of words. Perhaps the worst which may be said of the treatise is that it represents a fair sample of collegiate economics in this country at the present time. Relative to other widely used textbooks it

The list of collaborators contains several well-known names, and the

Table of Contents indicates the chapters which each contributor has written. The reader will not be able, however, by omitting chapters by the less prominent writers, to avoid the weaker sections of the treatise.

Few of the obvious difficulties of collaboration among so many writers, of different interests and training, have been overcome. Each writer's contribution is essentially independent; the unity and continuity exist only in the Table of Contents. The chapters on distribution theory have almost nothing in common with those on price theory. The section on money and credit carefully avoids the problem of cycles; and the chapter on business cycles hardly touches upon monetary theory. The section on wages and labor problems will make sense only to one who accepts a kind of price theory and monetary theory which, to say the least, is not discernible in other parts of the book. The result is a compilation of almost thirteen hundred pages, which an intelligent person might read most carefully without acquiring, except fortuitously, any real insight into major economic problems, or any feeling for the difference between sense and nonsense in economic analysis.

The book contains, at many points, excellent presentations of significant descriptive material. This fact may suffice to recommend it in some instances over other available texts. That it has serious limitations, for the training of beginners in economics *qua* economics, is perhaps really of minor importance, other textbooks being what they are.

H. C. SIMONS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Research in Transportation in Relation to Agriculture.* Edited by JOHN D. BLACK and MURRAY R. BENEDICT. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1933. Pp. 94. \$0.75.

The main purpose of this report is: "to outline the field under discussion in terms of a suggested list of possible research projects and to discuss the methodology of each." The report gives first a definition of the field and a general bibliography and summary of statistical information available.

Individual projects are written up by various authors under the following group headings: projects relating to the incidence of given changes in freight rates, particularly railroad rates; projects relating to policy in rate-making; projects relating to highway transportation; projects relating to waterways; projects involving technological analysis by commodities; projects relating to the localization of production and marketing and to area relationships.

It is not clear that any general questions of policy guided the editors in the selection of individual projects except that the possibility of their use by agricultural experiment stations, the United States Department of Agriculture, or other agencies likely to be engaged in transportation research was kept in mind. The effect of a change in agricultural economic policy on the relative importance of research projects does not seem to have been considered. The section on policy in relation to rate-making is not an adequate answer to the problem.

Most space is given to problems of rail rates and rail-rate policies. In view of recent legislation more space might well have been given to an elaboration of the projects concerned with the localization of production and marketing.

E. A. DUDDY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Taming Our Machines.* By RALPH E. FLANDERS. New York: Richard R. Smith, 1932. Pp. 244. \$2.50.

*The Great Technology: Social Chaos and the Public Mind.* By HAROLD RUGG. New York: John Day, 1933. Pp. xiv+308. \$2.50.

Mr. Flanders has written a lucid, readable, and non-technical book on the ways and means of civilizing the machine era. He does not take the position that we must repudiate the machine and return to a simpler economy. Rather, he sets forth the principles of "the good life" and shows how we must control the empire of machines and the profit system in order to advance the ideals of plenty, culture, urbanity, and leisure. It is a good statement of general principles, but the harder task is the application of these principles in practical life.

Dr. Harold Rugg has taken a leading part in introducing the social studies into the education of American youth. In this learned and cogent book he turns his well-informed mind and fresh viewpoint to the issue of subduing our mechanical and technological civilization in the interest of the well-being of man.

The first part of the book is devoted to showing how tremendously we have changed as a result of the scientific and industrial revolutions—especially the new revolution in power and energy which is too often ignored in our books on the Industrial Revolution. Next he shows how the capitalist system has failed to control the machine in a responsible and efficient manner. He then con-

cludes with a survey of educational and governmental changes which will be necessary if we salvage our civilization and move on to better things. He makes an eloquent plea for a system of education which will not only give us literacy but also teach us how to live. He clearly shows how the dynamic character of our present civilization makes it necessary to provide more adequate facilities for adult education.

Neither Mr. Flanders nor Dr. Rugg is a formal or official "Technocrat," and their books gain strength as a result of this freedom from any suspicion that they are trying to support a preconceived thesis.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH,  
NEW YORK CITY

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*The Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American School Board Members.*

By CLAUDE E. ARNETT. Emporia, Kansas: Emporia Gazette Press, 1932. Pp. xvi+235.

A part of the program of the Commission on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools involves four studies within the general problem of the "Relation of the Public to the Schools," these studies inquiring into the social beliefs and attitudes of (1) "American educators," (2) superintendents of schools, (3) instructors in teachers' colleges and normal schools, and (4) school-board members. In the present investigation, dealing with the group last named, attitudes were ascertained by means of a test including items pertaining to educational, political, economic, and other social issues. In the tabulations of responses which were made, scores on the test were related to geographic areas of the United States, populations of communities, methods of selecting board members, age, sex, vocation, income, church affiliation or preference, political party, and educational qualifications. The tabulations indicate wide variation in attitude among individuals but a dominance of conservatism when the whole group is considered. Board members are shown to be more conservative than educators. Besides reporting the evidence, the monograph discusses the significance of the findings. On the mechanical side the printed report leaves something to be desired.

LEONARD V. KOOS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Workers' Emotions in Shop and Home.* A Study of Individual Workers from the Psychological and Physiological Standpoint. By REX B. HERSEY. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1932. Pp. xviii+441. \$3.00.

This volume presents the results of an investigation carried on in 1929 and 1930 in the repair shops of the Pennsylvania Railroad. The author studied intensively the emotional life of each of twenty-nine workers as related to shop and home environments, and supplements these observations with studies, carried out over a three-year period, of workers in non-mechanical operations and in other companies. The method of personal interview was followed, and the material so obtained compared with production estimates, scores on several psychological tests, and physiological (blood pressure) changes.

The purposes which this research accomplished were to make a more adequate descriptive study of the individual at work, and to correlate variations in emotional tonus or tension with the more objective materials offered in production efficiency records, mental tests, and physiological measurements. Perhaps due to the limited number of individuals included in the intensive study the first purpose seems to have been accomplished more satisfactorily than the second.

The author illustrates his principal finding, that there are recurrent "highs" and "lows" in feelings toward work, its surroundings, and home life. There are three possible causes of periodicity suggested, and the correctness of these is left an open question. The most likely theory seems to be that the individual has recurrent phases of activity during which he draws heavily upon his organic resources, and that after energy depletion has gone so far he begins to feel the results. Consciously or otherwise he begins to slow up, the period of slowing up prevents his being thrown into new activities, and he becomes "depressed because he cannot enjoy the activities he must or wishes to carry on." After a period of recuperation he finds his energy sufficient for his desires, and engages in activity of more varied sorts, with heightened emotional tone.

The concluding chapter contains specific and mature suggestions with respect to the problems which are met in industrial personnel management with very concise statement of how these problems may be dealt with.

W. H. BRENTLINGER

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*College and Life: Problems of Self-Discovery and Self-Direction.* By M. E. BENNETT. New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+456. \$2.75.

The aim of this book is to help students, especially college students, meet the problems with which they are faced. It is designed to be used as a background for informal group discussions, though it could be profitably read by any young person seriously interested in his own development even in the absence of organized machinery for such discussion. It will probably find a considerable market in the field of the Freshman orientation course. The three principal divisions of the book are entitled, "Living in College," "Learning in College," and "Building a Life." The chapters are a judicious mixture of common-sense advice, scientific information, and thought-provoking discussion. At the end of each are a personal inventory designed to bring the points home to the reader and a full list of references. The author appears to have made a thorough study of the pertinent materials in the psychological, sociological, and biological fields. His presentation of the problems of mental health is particularly able. The book will be chiefly interesting to sociologists as indicating that intelligent use will probably be made of whatever principles they can formulate. Practical application will not lag far behind scientific discovery.

ROBERT COOLEY ANGELL

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

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*An Experiment in Recreation with the Mentally Retarded: A Joint Project of the Lincoln State School and Colony and the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research.* By BERTHA SCHLOTTER and MARGARET SVENDSEN. Chicago: Behavior Research Fund, 1933. Pp. iv+75.

This report is a detailed description of considerable significance in the therapeutic treatment of the feeble-minded. The four-year program of recreation and observation herein reported is unique in the scope of its work as applied to all the patients, of all levels of intelligence, in a large state institution for the feeble-minded. The purpose as stated, "to conduct a program of activities, consistent with the interests and abilities of mentally handicapped children, this program to act as a substitute for former repressive measures of control," bespeaks as well a new era in the aims of state institutions: education versus detention. Yet the greatest



import for future work in this direction lies not so much in either the scope or the objectives of the experiment as it does in the report of the methods which were utilized. The value of group interaction in socializing and educating the responses of mental deviates thereby providing both the desire and the avenues for use of maximum mental, physical, and emotional powers has not heretofore been recognized extensively.

A comprehensive report of the experiment includes a procedure based upon subjective observation of individual reaction to group play activities.

Although the report is a pioneer adventure in an almost unexplored field, the results, as noted, leave much to be desired from the standpoint of clarity. Actual theory underlying the recreation work is given in a vague and generalized fashion; no effort was made seemingly definitely to designate the types of responses to be observed by play leaders. The results in method are therefore not practically valuable for leaders except those trained in the theories of "socio-psychological aspects" of play. Again, conclusions on the play responses of feeble-minded children are drawn unsupported by later presented lists of material. The authors note, "mental age seems to be a more important factor than chronological age in determining interests and abilities" in play. Actual examination of recreation material introduced (exclusive of that used in the initial period of adjustment) indicates that the range of activities represents the interests and abilities of corresponding life-age. Still further inference upon reading interests, "there is general agreement that the mental age is more important than life-age in determining reading preferences," is invalidated at the start by the scarcity of reading material available to patients and by the lack of adequate recognition that insufficient mastery of reading may stifle the interest-choice of the mentally deficient. The authors fail to note that play response in feeble-minded children, as in normal children, depends upon an accumulation and integration of their total individual and social patterns and not upon a few factors in either field. The most significant phase for further experiment in Lincoln is the work initiated in the nursery group; scientific observation of the play response in early years should have value not only for the development of mental deviates in institutions but also should result in more complete education of those children now in the public schools.

The whole report is indeed illuminating in the possibilities which may be utilized in: (1) the material within the natural spontaneous interests of mentally retarded children, (2) methods which release normal social in-

teraction as against individual analysis, and (3) emphasis upon a theory which provides opportunity for the development of the total capacities of mental deviates to their now relatively unknown "possibilities."

FLORENCE N. BEAMAN

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*Unemployment Insurance and Various Forms of Relief for the Unemployed.* By INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE. Geneva: International Labour Office, 1933. Pp. 299.

This is an accurate, up-to-date handbook of the world's unemployment insurance legislation, indispensable to those concerned with its form and development. Two sorts of material compose this volume: first, a text explaining the issues involved in the various provisions of unemployment insurance laws, and second, brief summaries of the actual arrangements found in existing legislation.

The explanatory text will be of special interest to general readers, with its statements of issues and with its impartially stated arguments for and against various features of unemployment insurance, such as a waiting period before benefit is payable, the limitation of benefit to a fixed maximum duration, the methods of distributing the cost, etc. These discussions on the whole are good, well-digested, and accurate, but seldom exhaustive.

The theoretical discussion of each chapter is followed by a digest of the statutory provisions on that particular point and by an even briefer but very usable tabular summary at the close of most of the chapters. In this portion of the work the compilers have succeeded well in formulating accurate and well-digested summaries of many legal details. The inaccuracies which the reviewer noted in the material intimately known to her were few and largely those of omission, such as of the age requirement for applicants for transitional payments in Great Britain or the voluntary exemption from insurance which British seasonal workers may claim under specified conditions. More serious is the failure to mention the normal waiting period of one week in Great Britain and the substitution for it of a digest of the so-called "continuity rules" under which short periods of unemployment may be linked together so that only one waiting period of a week is required for subsequent intermittent unemployment. But considering the volume and the complexity of the material, such slips are few indeed.

The study is based almost wholly on the text of the laws and in a few

instances upon regulations and reports of various commissions. As a result, the emphasis is upon a presentation of statutory arrangements, without any attempt to evaluate them or the experience gained in operation. An exception to the purely legal method is the valuable table which gives the financial experience of the various unemployment insurance systems over a period of years.

OLGA S. HALSEY

NEW YORK CITY

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*State Aid in Several Forms of Public Relief.* By JAMES FOGARTY.  
Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America, 1932.  
Pp. 190.

The title is somewhat misleading, for the book deals with items of public service not ordinarily considered relief, as well as fields more generally considered within the province of relief.

After a brief introductory discussion of state participation in local responsibilities, the author takes up state aid in several forms of public service. The first chapter deals with state support of public schools. Here, too, the term "relief" has somewhat colored the discussion. The author states, "Present conditions are such that vast numbers of parents or guardians are unable or unwilling to give, or even allow to be given, an adequate education to their children or wards. For those who are unable the state must supply the necessary facilities, and against those who are unreasonably unwilling to perform their duty in this matter the state must move with compulsion." The implication that the public school is designed for those unable to pay for their children's schooling is diametrically opposed to the century-old concept of public education as the great instrument of democracy. Then follows good discussion of financing and equalization.

The second chapter deals with state aid for highway construction, an important public-welfare but hardly a relief measure under normal circumstances. The subject is undoubtedly included on account of the place of road-building in emergency work relief programs, with which the author concludes the chapter. There is no discussion of the economic value or limitations of road-building as work relief nor of work relief in general.

The next chapters treat: the growth of state grants for institutional facilities for the insane, feeble-minded, the blind, deaf, and aged; state aid for the dependent child in maintaining local standards of child care, in providing institutional care, and in co-ordination of child welfare agen-

cies; mothers' assistance; old-age pensions and blind relief; and emergency programs for unemployment relief and for disaster relief. In the last-named chapter the author indicates the superiority of state over local programs of relief because of the administrative and fiscal inadequacy of the smaller units.

The concluding chapter gives the arguments for state as against local programs in the fields considered. It suggests at least partial failure when the state fails to organize and co-ordinate local forces. It raises the question as to possibility of a state equalization program for family relief, showing the necessity under such a scheme for efficient county organization for administration of such relief. It states the need for aiding the local unit without destroying the local sense of responsibility. The argument here is one of the most important contributions of the book. It does not, however, touch upon the question which has become acute in some localities of state emergency relief distributed not through public but through local private agencies. Actually the trend of opinion is increasingly against such a policy, not only because of economic efficiencies and inherent dangers in the system of state subsidy of private agencies but because of growing belief in the need for holding public agencies to high standards of performance.

MOLLIE RAY CARROLL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The American Scene: The Inside Story.* By EDWIN C. HILL. New York: M. Witmark & Sons, 1933. Pp. vi+433. \$3.00.

Thousands of Americans were charmed and informed by Frederick Allen's *Only Yesterday*, a dignified but breezy journalistic history of the last decade. Mr. Hill has gone Mr. Allen one better in jazzing up the story of the United States today. Compared with *The American Scene*, *Only Yesterday* seems the product of a staid member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences or the Century Club.

The book contains a maximum of color and juice and a minimum of thought and analytical subtlety. If, however, it will inform millions who would never read a serious and thoughtful book on contemporary America, its publication will be justified. No fair man can deny the author a dashing and captivating style.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH  
NEW YORK CITY

*The Traipsin' Woman.* By JEAN THOMAS. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1933. Pp. 277. \$2.50.

This book is a candid and admirable narrative of the author's experiences in the Kentucky mountains, comparable perhaps to Mr. Wayman Hogue's *Back Yonder*, which chronicled his adventures in the Ozark hills of Arkansas. A court stenographer, Miss Thomas, followed a circuit judge from court-house to court-house, transcribing the vivid testimony of feudists, murderers, and moonshiners. In her spare moments she collected folk songs, some of which were printed in *Devil's Ditties*, her first book about the mountain people. Later on she founded the American Folk Song Society, and organized the Folk Song Festival which is now an annual event. In the present volume Miss Thomas deals with the more general aspects of Kentucky folk life and knows her subject so well that she can afford to be discursive about it. *The Traipsin' Woman* is one of the very few "hill-billy" books which do not seem ridiculous to those of us who live in the hills.

VANCE RANDOLPH

PINEVILLE, MO.

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*Marriage Conditions in a Palestinian Village.* By HILMA GRANQVIST. Helsingfors: Centraltryckeri och Bokbinderi Ab., 1931. Pp. iv+200.

This is an interesting and valuable monograph representing a careful ethnological study of the marriage system in the small Arabic village of Artas, which is located a short distance southwest of Bethlehem.

The author, who has a thorough knowledge of Palestinian history and ethnology, spent twenty months of intensive field work constructing a genealogy of Artas marriages of the past 100 years and gathering a wealth of concrete material on the beliefs, sentiments, customs, and regulations that form the institutional complex of marriage.

Besides contributing materially to our all too fragmentary knowledge of the culture groups of the Near East, the book includes an excellent chapter on ethnographic methodology. It is another of a few studies which represent a much needed beginning in an emphasis in ethnology on the study of the subjective aspects of institutional forms. Miss Granqvist has made a beginning in demonstrating the utility of the subjective material, and no discussion of institutional forms such as child betrothal, preferential mating, bride choice, bride price, etc., can afford to overlook

*White Spirituals in the Southern Uplands.* By GEORGE PULLEN JACKSON. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1933. Pp. 444. \$4.50.

In this book Professor Jackson has given us the story of a very interesting phase of American folk culture, namely, the story of the songs and singing customs of the southern shape-note singers or, as he calls them, "the fasola folk." Originating in the early 1700's in the poor and unlettered folk's desire for an easy way of learning to sing religious songs, it has survived among the rural folk of the southern mountains and adjoining areas as the basis of an important culture complex. Here are found poets and composers whose works have sold into the millions of copies, yet are unknown to the conventional musical world. Here are found songs whose tunes are largely derived from the traditional Scotch-Irish tunes, songs whose scales and harmonization strike the urban musical ear as "queer." Here also are the old-time "singin' schools" and the "all-day-singin'-with-dinner-on-the-ground" meetings. The reviewer was brought up in a section of Texas where this culture complex had not disappeared, and his interest in music grew out of one of these "singin' schools," but he was not aware of the rich history and wide diffusion of the movement until he read Professor Jackson's book.

The term "spirituals" used in the title of the book will naturally cause the average reader to ask, What is the relation of these songs to the Negro spirituals? The term is not Professor Jackson's invention. It is the word which the old-time white folks still use to designate their camp-meeting songs. These songs are folk songs in the same sense that the Negro spirituals are. Indeed many of the Negro spirituals are borrowed outright from these white spirituals. This fact finds a rather reluctant acceptance by those who have been accustomed to call the Negro spiritual a purely Negro creation. Newman I. White in his *American Negro Folksongs* (1928) demonstrated the existence of white spirituals and showed that their texts formed the basis of many Negro spiritual texts. In my *Folk Culture on St. Helena Island* I attacked the musical side of the problem and showed: (1) that the musical traits of the Negro spirituals and the white camp-meeting songs were practically identical, except for rhythm, and (2) that quite a few of the Negro spiritual tunes are borrowed from white tunes. Professor Jackson, interested from a different angle, reached the same conclusion independently, and his chapters on the Negro spiritual remove all doubt as to the kinship of white and Negro religious folk music.

It is impossible to give the reader an accurate picture of the contents of this volume in this brief review. In the author's own words, it has been

his pleasant task to track down the old Sacred Heart and other song books, to discover "what strange sorts of songs they contained, whence the unique notation in which the songs are recorded, who made, collected, and sang them, how, when, and where they came into being, and how and where their singing persists at present."

Professor Jackson, who, incidentally, is a trained musician and a teacher of German, has written a book which fits neatly into the present emphasis on folk and regional sociology. No student of folk song or folk culture can afford to ignore this work.

GUY B. JOHNSON

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

*The Acoma Indians.* By LESLIE A. WHITE. Forty-seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of American Ethnology. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932. Pp. xix+192.

This careful account of the culture of the westernmost Keresan pueblo tribe maintains the traditions of ethnological reporting in the Southwest. The formal aspects of the native life—the organizations of the explicit institutions and the details of ritual—receive fullest attention. One feels that these are naturally emphasized because the source of most information is an Indian standing a little apart from the scene of his daily activities and describing matters to the ethnologist. The suspicion in which Acoma Indians hold outsiders, and the esoteric character of much of the culture, make this mode of procedure more or less necessary. Dr. White certainly understands this, and provides "summary comment" to stress the underlying integrating concepts. "There is a quality of sphericity about the organization; any point is connected or concerned (more or less directly) with all others." The assertion is not, however, fully expanded. Another summary compares Acoma culture with those of its neighbors on the east and on the west. There are interesting paragraphs on changes now taking place in Acoma culture, indicating how, for example, the introduction of irrigation separated a part of the population from the rest, weakened the bonds of the old institutions, and tended to secularize life.

ROBERT REDFIELD

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Americans at Play.* By JESSE FREDERICK STEINER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933. Pp. vi+201. \$2.50

This is one of the monographs expanding a chapter by the same author in *Recent Social Trends in the United States*. The volume represents a

vast amount of difficult and painstaking labor in assembling the data concerning the developments in the play activities of Americans during the past several decades. The work was rendered the more difficult because of the failure of the multitudinous agencies providing play facilities to keep adequate records. Professor Steiner has rendered a valuable service in assembling the material.

One will not find here, however, much concerning the social significance of this development. The volume attempts to hold religiously to the announced purpose of the entire study of social trends to record only "bare" facts. That the pose is a difficult one to maintain, however, is shown by Professor Steiner's wavering in several places, where he steps down to the "unscientific" level of implying value judgments concerning certain recreational activities. On page 97 he states that professional boxing "has failed to free itself entirely from the undesirable associations that have so long clung to it." On page 111, in discussing moving pictures, he says: "There can be no doubt that some of the films have been vulgar, demoralizing and even criminally suggestive. On the other hand some of the most popular and successful films have been of an exceedingly high order of art and are wholesome from every point of view." And in the same paragraph he expresses the belief that public opinion "is gradually becoming more effectively organized in the interests of a more wholesome form of entertainment." On page 171 he states that the "national forests constitute a major recreational resource of great value." In discussing the regulation and control of commercial amusements he speaks (page 174) of "the tendency to increase financial profits by providing demoralizing forms of popular entertainment." And on page 175 he notes that dance halls "tended in many instances to exert a demoralizing influence upon their patrons," and again, on page 176, refers to efforts to keep the taxi-dance hall from exerting a "demoralizing" influence.

It is probable, however, that most readers of the volume will be willing to forgive Professor Steiner for such lapses as these. In fact some might wish that he had wavered even more frequently.

CECIL C. NORTH

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

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*The New Russia.* Edited by JEROME DAVIS. New York: John Day Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+265. \$2.50.

This is the joint product of a small band of scholars and experts who in the summer of 1932, under the leadership of Jerome Davis, went about Russia, each inquiring into the matter he is most conversant with and



interested in. Frankwood Williams considers "The Psychologic Bases of Soviet Success"; Ellsworth Huntington presents "The Geographic Background of the Revolution"; Sims of Oberlin offers "Socialistic Agriculture"; Scholtz of the Wharton School writes "Industry and the Five Year Plan"; George and Vera Douglas of Hood College give "The Life of the Workers"; Davis considers "The Communist Party and the Government," also reviews the relations between the United States and the U.S.S.R.; Comstock of Mount Holyoke contributes "The Financial Structure"; A. K. Smith presents "The Legal System"; Krowl of the College of the City of New York describes the public educational system; "What the Soviets Live By" is from Francis A. Henson; Miss Kingsbury of Bryn Mawr sets forth "Social Welfare"; and Gillin of Wisconsin describes the prison system.

There is no bias in this book, and it will go a long way to counteract the drum-fire of propaganda upon our minds. It is a book well suited to the needs of the intelligent. I am inclined to think that on many matters the Russians are pushing up the wrong trail, but I am intensely curious as to how they actually come out. It may be that in the end we shall have to revise certain of our policies in the light of their experience.

EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

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*Happy Childhood: The Development and Guidance of Childhood and Youth.* By JOHN E. ANDERSON. *Busy Childhood: Guidance through Play and Activity.* By JOSEPHINE C. FOSTER. *Healthy Childhood: Guidance for Physical Care.* By HAROLD C. STUART. New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1933. Pp. xix+321; xi+303; xxvii+393.

These three volumes of the Century Childhood Library, edited by Dr. Anderson, quite remarkably turn out to be very much the same size. The volume by Dr. Stuart, somewhat the largest, contains a great deal of boiled-down, sanely presented, factual material, ranging from a short chapter on preparation for parenthood and a sketchy consideration of human physiology to discussion of nutrition, feeding problems, growth norms, special diseases, and accidents. The other two books are very liberally padded with citations from reports of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. One notes the appearance of these books in our libraries and in the book stores at a time when many books of about a fourth thousand pages, whether it was naïveté or desire to fill orders

pages that led the first two volumes to be burdened with useless statements of the obvious, the reviewer does not pretend to determine. In *Busy Childhood*, we are told at some length, for example, that children like to stand on their heads and walk on stilts, and that another play of movement and equilibrium is found in swimming, while captions to the illustrations actually state that tricycles can be bought, that skating is great fun, etc., etc. Just why scores of pages should be taken up by such banalities it is very hard to understand. If a student is to deal at all with questions of sex education or individualized training, the problems of emotional life or the management of handicapped children, then certainly he should have on hand much more than is offered in the short sections on these topics.

The volume on *Healthy Childhood* has more that can be said for it, but here again, why treat physiology in such summary fashion? The seventy pages on feeding and the sections on growth of the child are planned better. The chapter on diseases represents a sort of family doctor's book. It might have been conceived that these volumes will prove useful as guidebooks for parents—and perhaps that will be their greatest use.

WILLIAM HEALY, M.D.

JUDGE BAKER GUIDANCE CENTER  
BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

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660 *Runaway Boys: Why Boys Desert Their Homes*. By CLAIRETTE P. ARMSTRONG. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1933. Pp. 208. \$3.00.

Dr. Armstrong, psychologist of the Children's Court in New York City, gives us in this book the results of an intensive study of the cases of 660 boys who were brought to the Children's Court in New York City—in a majority of instances by their parents—on a complaint of deserting their homes. The data fall into two major categories—statistics and case histories. The statistical section is very detailed—much too detailed in spots. It includes tables that might better have been reserved for an appendix. The author points out the probability of a bias in her sample. Runaways listed as “neglected,” for example, were not included unless also listed as “delinquent.” Two other small groups of boys were studied as controls—a group of 70 charged with unlawful entry and a group of 60 known to the court as “incorrigibles.”

The case histories, though often presented in insufficient detail, make interesting reading. The author might well have given greater prominence to this aspect of her study.

The evidence, marshaled in the conclusion, constitutes a grave indictment, primarily of parents and secondarily of the school system. "Society seems to conspire to protect parents. . . . Why are not the parents held responsible in Court for their failure, not the boy?" The author concludes that the answer lies in part in a system of adult training for the vocation of parenthood. The inflexibility of the schools must be modified also, for the picture reveals that flight from home is often in reality only flight from school.

Visiting teachers, juvenile court officers, and public-school teachers will find food for thought in Dr. Armstrong's book.

A. WAYNE McMILLEN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*De Iure Belli Libri Tres.* By ALBERICO GENTILI. Vol. I, *Text of 1612*; Vol. II, *Translation*. Washington: Carnegie Foundation, 1933. Pp. vi+742, and 52a+479. \$8.00.

Grotius, whose book on the law of war and peace appeared in 1625, has most frequently been acknowledged as the father of modern international law, but in recent years Spain has claimed this honor for Francis of Victoria whose treatise on the Indies and the law of war was first published posthumously in 1557. A claim to the paternity of international law as good as either of these can be made for the author of the present volume—Alberico Gentili, an Italian who taught for years at Oxford University and published this treatise on the law of war in 1589. His book on diplomatic practice had already appeared in 1585, and he later published a series of dissertations on maritime law known as the "Spanish Advocate." Together these volumes constitute a fairly complete treatise on international law. Grotius acknowledges his debt to Gentili but in terms which perhaps do not indicate the extent of this debt or the penetrating and comprehensive manner in which Gentili covered the subject.

Gentili is the first modern writer to treat international law as an independent system distinct from Roman law, natural law, military strategy, and theological speculation. He utilizes the practice of his day as an important source of law although like other writers of the time he quotes extensively from classical and biblical authority, and acknowledges the existence of natural law. The book is even more realistic than that of Grotius and far less theological than that of the Dominican Victoria. His observations on the justifiability of war, the limitations of sovereignty, the position of neutrals, and the balance of power have a practical application

today. He emphasizes, however, that international law is for nations and not nations for international law. Consequently, the law must continually be adapted to new conditions.

The present edition brought out for the Carnegie Endowment of International Peace at Washington contains a facsimile of the edition of 1612 and a translation into English by John C. Rolfe, the first English translation ever made of this work. The excellent Introduction by Coleman Phillipson adequately places Gentili in his historical setting and sets forth with considerable detail his contributions to international law. Because of its high merit, its historical importance, and its previous unavailability in translation, this book is perhaps the most valuable contribution made to scholarship by the Carnegie Endowment's editions of the classics of international law.

QUINCY WRIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*A Political and Social History of England.* By FREDERICK C. DIETZ.

Revised Edition. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xxii+786. \$3.25.

This textbook is a revision of the original work published in 1927. Most of the plates from the first edition have been used again, but some thirty pages relating to Anglo-Saxon and medieval constitutional history have been inserted, and a corresponding reduction made in the space devoted to pre-war diplomacy. The sections on recent history have also been brought up to date.

Mr. Dietz' work is notable for two features. He sacrifices the traditional details of political history to make room for matters relating to economic and social developments, especially in his own field of government finance. The book also differs from similar publications in presenting material tending to support the German version of events connected with the World War.

M. M. KNAPPEN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Scientific Basis of Evolution.* By THOMAS HUNT MORGAN. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1932. Pp. ix+286. \$3.50.

This book contains the simplest statement I have yet seen of genetics. It is by the greatest living biologist, who has done more than any other one man to make the marvelous development which has occurred in the

study of heredity since 1910. The twelve chapters were lectures at Cornell, and the exposition is a model of clarity and simplicity. There is very little attempt to state the meaning of biology for sociology, but in this book the sociologist will find an account of a phase of biology which he can rely upon with the speculations and suppositions eliminated.

WILLIAM F. OGBURN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Sciences of Man in the Making: An Orientation Book.* By EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1932. Pp. xv+396.

The present book is a survey of various fields of knowledge and behavior done on a common-sense level. An initial chapter deals with the nature and method of science in a very elementary way. This is followed in order by chapters on biology, anthropology, physiology, eugenics, economics, political science, psychology, social psychology, sociology, education, religion, morals, and ethics. The treatment throughout is simple and elementary. There is an avoidance of technical terms, exact definition, and extended discussion. Each chapter is followed by a few brief excerpts from well-known books in the particular field of the chapter and by very brief bibliographies. The book is too elementary, superficial, and diffuse to have any place in serious college work. It is presumably designed to meet the needs of a relatively uneducated general public. It would be a useful volume to add to a high-school library. It has no sociological interest or significance.

E. B. REUTER

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

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*Hawaii and Its Race Problem.* By WILLIAM AHERTON DU PUY. Publication of the United States Department of the Interior. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932. Pp. x+131. \$1.00.

Mr. du Puy, executive assistant to the Secretary of the Interior, who was delegated to investigate conditions in Hawaii, presents in a lucid and sympathetic vein a few elementary facts concerning the topography, political history, economic and social conditions, and racial amalgamation in the Hawaiian Islands. He concludes that the "ultimate Hawaiian" will be a fusion of the present racial elements, that Americanization has been taking place rapidly, and that a movement for curtailment of self-government in the Territory, arising out of an incident of last year which led to a widespread misrepresentation of the Islands, is a mistake.

CLARENCE E. GLICK

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

*New Learning in Old Egypt.* By ERDMAN HARRIS. New York: Association Press, 1932. Pp. 99.

This little book is primarily a description of an educational experiment carried on at the American University in Cairo, using the "project principle" as a method. The results of attempting to "motivate purposeful activity" are interesting and suggestive and worthy of the consideration of teachers and students who have different conditions to meet. Incidentally, the book gives a more vivid picture of Egypt and its people than is found in most guidebooks.

MARION TALBOT

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

*Greater America: An Interpretation of Latin America in Relation to Anglo-Saxon America.* By WALLACE THOMPSON. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1932. Pp. 275.

Latin America is here presented as a land destined to closer commercial and cultural union with Anglo-Saxon America. It is argued that Latin America is more like the United States than it is to old Spain or like any Indian or European element in its composition. Though this is claimed also for art and literature, the materials of the book deal chiefly with the economic linkages. There are up-to-date summaries of the development of communications in Latin America, of commercial expansion, of the exploitation of natural power, and of finance, tariffs, and trade. Latin America, it is urged, is a great field for the expansion of our commerce and technical arts. We should recognize our common continental destiny and come to know and appreciate these southern neighbors.

ROBERT REDFIELD

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*International Adjudications, Ancient and Modern, History and Documents.*

Edited by JOHN BASSETT MOORE. Modern Series, Vol. V. New York: Oxford University Press, 1933. Pp. xv+502. \$2.50.

This volume contains the record of the awards by the Spanish Spoliation commission of 1795 and of the United States national commission for distributing the French indemnities of 1803 and 1831. The historical zeal of Judge Moore is illustrated in the first of these cases. Continuous research in private and public archives had brought to light much new material, thus enlarging the record which occupied 14 pages in Judge Moore's *International Arbitrations* of 1898 to 146 pages.

The awards rendered by this commission which dealt with American vessels seized after 1793 were made payable by the Spanish treasury direct to the individual claimants. This differs from the present practice which, recognizing international arbitration as an affair between states, provides for payment of awards to the claimant state to be distributed by it to its nationals if it wishes. In spite of this peculiarity with respect to the mode of payment, which incidentally draws Judge Moore into a discussion of the constitutional organization of the Spanish exchequer in the eighteenth century, the commission insisted on the rule, still recognized, that awards could only be made to genuine citizens of the claimant state. The Spanish commissioner, in fact, thought naturalized

American citizens should not be entitled to awards, but in this he was over-ruled.

The French indemnities of 1803 and 1831 are dealt with in historical narratives including most of Franco-American diplomatic relations from 1778 through the Napoleonic wars.

QUINCY WRIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Petit traité de sociologie économique: essai sur l'organisation des sociétés humaines et leur évolution de l'antiquité à nos jours.* By ANDRÉ JOUS-SAIN. Paris: J. Lamarre, Éditeur, 1931. Pp. xi+351.

This book, presumably designed as a text, is a compact and lucid arrangement of materials found in treatises on economics, economic geography, economic history, and sociology (with the emphasis on social psychology). It should well subserve its purpose of conveying to the student of sociology the framework of economic information and ideas which he will need in his own field. Trenchant criticisms of present-day institutions are hardly to be expected in a work of this kind, but the tone (note chap. viii on wealth and the wealthy) could be less bland and soothing without in any way endangering the social order.

M. M. KNIGHT

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

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*Dawn in Russia.* By WALDO FRANK. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. 272. \$2.25.

This is a popular sketch of a brief trip to Russia in which the writer visited Leningrad, Moscow, and the Volga River. While not a scientific presentation of Russian conditions, the impressions are interesting and do give a popular picture, although too brief, of some of the conditions in Russia today.

JEROME DAVIS

YALE UNIVERSITY

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*The History of Peace.* By A. C. F. BEALES. New York: Dial Press, 1931. Pp. viii+355. \$4.00.

This is history in the narrower sense of the term. There is little effort at a broad analysis of the social foundations of the world peace movement. It is a useful compilation for reference purposes, however, of all the essential facts, names, and titles in the movement during the preceding century.

HARRY D. GIDEONSE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Educational Survey* (Vol. III, No. 1). Geneva: Secretariat of the League of Nations, March, 1932. Pp. 127.

Contains an excellent article by Alfred Zimmern, of Oxford, on education in international relations. There are also a number of reports on Germany, France, and Great Britain.

HARRY D. GIDEONSE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Life in the Making.* By ALAN FRANK GUTTMACHER, assisted by ELLERY RAND. New York: Viking Press, 1933. Pp. xii+297. \$2.75.

The persistent interest in the nature of human reproduction leads to a large annual crop of books on this subject, books ranging from the extremes of pure pornography, pure fiction, to pure science. Dr. Guttmacher's volume, written for laymen, deals with the subject on a broad biological basis, sans the confusion of technical details and sans pornography. The naïve ideas, superstitions, and social taboos in the realm of sex are recounted and excised painlessly, with the gentle skill of an able surgeon. For the layman, with ability and interest to delve deeper in each phase, a list of reliable monographs serves as guide. The charming style and the accuracy of presentation of the proven facts make this volume a welcome addition to the layman's book shelf.

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Frontiers of Medicine.* By MORRIS FISHBEIN. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. x+207. \$1.00.

A brief and simple, but accurate and dramatic, review, for laymen, of the most outstanding discoveries in medicine, from Hippocrates to Walter Reed. The five concluding chapters, dealing with medical research and medical practice today, may strike the reader as an anticlimax, but the momentum from the earlier epochs carries you through. A worth-while volume.

A. J. CARLSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Indian Tribes of the Southwest.* By MRS. WHITE MOUNTAIN SMITH. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1933. Pp. iii+146. \$1.50.

A simple account of experiences had by the writer (author of *I Married a Ranger*) and four college girls on an automobile tour of Indian villages and reservations in Arizona and New Mexico, set against a slight background of ethnological and historical knowledge. Persons making similar tours will like to compare experiences with the author, and to use the map on the endsheet.

ROBERT REDFIELD

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*A Bibliography of Mental Tests and Rating Scales.* By GERTRUDE H. HILDRETH. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1933. Pp. 242. \$3.00.

The most elaborate, complete, and well-organized bibliography of tests in existence. Includes achievement as well as mental tests in the strict sense of the term.

FRANK N. FREEMAN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO



*Computing Diagrams for the Tetrachoric Correlation Coefficient.* By LEONE CHESIRE, MILTON SAFFIR, and L. L. THURSTONE. Chicago, 1933. Distributed by the University of Chicago Bookstore. Pp. 57. \$3.00.

This lithographed monograph contains a clear explanation of the computations, model data sheets, and computing diagrams for the calculation of tetrachoric correlation coefficients. It is an invaluable—well-nigh indispensable—aid in any research requiring the computation of considerable numbers of the indicated type of correlation coefficient. It is particularly valuable for studies involving the use of Professor Thurstone's method of Multiple Factor Analysis.

LEONARD S. COTTRELL, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The following communication has been received from Professor G. T. Robinson. Professor Zimmerman, to whom it was submitted, has no comment to make.

In a review of my book, *Rural Russia under the Old Régime*,<sup>1</sup> Professor Carle C. Zimmerman has taken me to task on the ground that I have not presented a weighed and balanced statement of the causes of "the revolution"—and I take it that when he employs this term he is referring not to the earlier uprisings of the peasants, or to the revolutions of 1905 and 1917 in general, but specifically to the *peasant* revolution of 1917. Now it should be obvious that a final analysis of the causes of this revolution cannot possibly be attempted until the narrative history has covered the new developments that arose during the period of the Great War, and on the last page of my book this task of examining the war period is explicitly reserved for performance in the second volume. I am therefore under attack for having failed to do something that in the very nature of things I could not have done in the book under review.

Nevertheless the present volume does have a good deal to say about the causes of this revolution. In its subtitle, the book is described as *A History of the Landlord-Peasant World and a Prologue to the Peasant Revolution of 1917*. It is a *History* in that it attempts to present a balanced account of rural life, period by period—and thus it includes, of necessity, a great deal of material that has no bearing upon the peasant revolt of 1917; and it is a *Prologue*, in that it is impregnated throughout with the idea that the older hardships and oppressions, and the peasant tradition of resentment and resistance, helped to prepare the way for the great uprising. Some of the older burdens and disabilities survived in altered

<sup>1</sup> *American Journal of Sociology*, 95: 600.

tion that they had made to the fund of peasant resentment; but in one way or another they played their part in the revolution of 1917, and they may properly be referred to, in the course of a long narrative history, as causes of that revolution, without vitiating in any way the balanced analysis that is still to come.

Not having found this analysis in the present volume, Professor Zimmerman thinks that what the book does offer on the subject of the causes of the revolution is vague and confusing; and in support of this conclusion he gathers from the volume a number of partial statements as to causation, and a number of facts, quite arbitrarily selected, as to the condition of the peasantry in various stages of their history. I am quite ready to admit that these items, in the form in which they are presented in the review, are not only confusing but often mutually contradictory; but this, I should say, is only because the reviewer has distorted or inflated many of them beyond all recognition. Let me illustrate his method of dealing with the text:

The eleventh chapter comes to the conclusion that the economic conditions of the peasant were improved in the decade following the revolution of 1905, that individualization and social change increased, but that surplus land was left out of control but under sight of the peasant. The twelfth chapter suggests that rental charges were responsible factors because "the conditions which existed during the later pre-war years were not notably different from those which helped to bring on the revolution of 1905." [In the original, this statement regarding the stability of conditions applies to renting only.] . . . At the conclusion one is told that if there is any logic in the motions of history the causes of the revolution of 1905 were the same as those of the revolution of 1917 since there had been no important changes in the situation of the peasant. But on page 264 opposite evidence is presented because the local agrarian disturbances declined between 1910 and 1914. One is left at the end without a definite answer to the whole problem.

And now, for purposes of comparison, let me quote from page 263 of the book:

In 1905 there had been an agrarian revolution, and behind this revolution, considered as a "result," there must have been its "causes"; if it is not so, then there is no logic in the motions of history. . . . Unless the situation and the attitude of the peasants had changed in a marked degree since the early years of the century, the causes of revolution were still present in the villages when the Great War came.

This problem of causation is really a double one, since it involves: first, the external and more or less measurable conditions of peasant life, and second, the attitude of the peasantry themselves toward these conditions.

In the external situation, there had been many changes since the outbreak of the revolution of 1905. The peasants now had more personal freedom and more political power than before—though little enough of either in all conscience; and what with the expansion of landholding, the improvement of yields, the increase in real wages in agriculture and in industry, and the decline in the death-rate, it seems probable that there had been some improvement in the material condition of a majority of the peasants, though hardly enough to raise any large part of them above a very humble level.

I then state that the individualization of peasant economy had been expected to produce in the peasants a respect for private property in general; and I go on to say, on the last two pages of the book:

There was no mistaking the *trend* toward individual property and independent farming; yet in any attempt to judge the peasant temper, allowance must be made for the part played by official compulsion in producing this trend, and it must also be remembered that with the system of peasant holding and peasant cultivation still in a violent flux of change, there had been thus far only a limited opportunity for the new ways to become habitual. Still it is possible that by reason of the economic and legal developments which have just been summarized the likelihood of a general uprising of the peasants against the landlords was diminishing. During the years 1910-1914, [there was] . . . a marked decline in the number of local agrarian disturbances recorded annually.

And then came the war, altering certain of the material conditions of peasant life . . . ; inflicting desperate and meaningless sorrow upon hundreds of thousands of peasant homes; . . .

The war-time fortunes of the peasantry require still a brief accounting, and then must come the history of their part in the revolution.

In other words, I said, with a diffidence that seemed to me appropriate to the quality of the evidence, that changes of some consequence had taken place between the revolution of 1905 and the Great War; that certain underlying causes of peasant discontent had somewhat diminished in force, though they certainly had not disappeared; and that certain manifestations of this discontent were diminishing in number after 1910. When the general underlying causes of peasant unrest were supplemented by the special cataclysmic conditions that arose during the Russo-Japanese War (these latter are treated in their appropriate place in the present volume), the peasant disturbances of 1905-7 were the result. In the case of the peasant revolution of 1917, the Great War took the place of the Russo-Japanese War, and the special conditions which it created are specifically reserved for treatment in the second volume, as a preliminary to an attempt at a final appraisal of the causes of that revolution.

# RECENT LITERATURE

## ABSTRACTS

The abstracts in this issue were prepared, under the direction of Francis E. Merrill and a member of the editorial staff, by Mostafa V. Abbassi, R. A. Beam, Charles E. Hendry, Thomas G. Hutton, Forrest E. Laviolette, Harvey J. Locke, Theodore K. Noss, J. S. Roucek, A. L. H. Rubin, Clarence H. Schettler, E. A. Shils, and F. L. Weller. Each abstract is numbered at the end according to the classification in the July issue of this *Journal*.

### I. HUMAN NATURE AND PERSONALITY

136. HANKINS, FRANK H. Is the Differential Fertility of the Social Classes Selective? *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 33-39.—The differential fertility of the social classes seems to be a well-established fact. The weight of evidence suggests that the upper classes are, both adults and children, taller, heavier, stronger, healthier, and freer from physical defects than the lower classes. The evidences on mental differences suggest also close correlation between I.Q. and social status. The correlation found between intelligence and social status is largely a consequence of the differences in the biological worth of the social classes. (I, 1).—*M.V.A.*

137. OSBORN, FREDERICK. Characteristics and Differential Fertility of American Population Groups. *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 8-16.—The differential fertility of American population may be classified from the standpoints of ethnic, regional, and occupational distributions. Since at the present state of our knowledge we cannot measure the genetic potentiality for intelligence, all we can do, then, is to measure what we may call cultural-intellectual development. For such a study we may be justified, therefore, to use mental tests to compare different groups as indexes of their cultural-intellectual development. Differences in cultural-intellectual development among the ethnic groups in this country are not consistent. The distribution of intelligence among regional groups is more consistent and shows an inverse relation to the index of fertility. (I, 1).—*M.V.A.*

138. REUSSER, J. L. Personal Attitudes of Delinquent Boys. *Journal of Juvenile Research*, XVII (1933), 19-34.—The author gave the Personal Attitude Test for Younger Boys to 423 delinquent boys in grades 5-12 at the Iowa Training School for Boys at Eldora, to 60 boys on probation, and to 419 boys in grades 7-12 chosen from the public schools in 6 towns ranging in population from 650 to 60,000. The major findings of the study are as follows: the training-school group, as contrasted with the public-school group, tended to be more critical of the average boy, to feel themselves more different from the average boy, to be more peculiar in their attitudes and interests, to be less able to estimate the feelings of others, and to feel themselves more superior—i.e., nearer the ideal. The scores of the delinquents from the rural and small urban districts deviated slightly more from the scores of the public-school boys than did the scores of the delinquents from the large cities. Age, intelligence, grade classification, and socio-economic status seemed unrelated to the attitudes measured. The personal attitudes of the training-school boys were apparently unchanged by residence in the institution. (I, 2).—*H. L. Koch*. (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts*.)

139. FROMM, ERICH. Die psychoanalytische Charakterologie und ihre Bedeutung für die Sozialpsychologie [Psychoanalytic Characterology and Its Significance for Social Psychology]. *Zeitschrift für Sozialforschung*, I, No. 3 (1933), 253-77.—The Freudian psychoanalytic characterology studies the forms of libido sublimation. Sexuality in the Freudian system passes through three stages, the oral, anal, and genital-

erotic, each of which determines the forms of satisfaction required by the individual while in that stage. In passing from one stage to another the sexual energy of the previous stage is either sublimated or passed on to the next stage. Those who have had satisfactory oral experience are marked by particular generosity, due to having taken over from the milk-giving mother the ideal of freedom with one's goods. Those who have unsatisfactory oral experiences are avaricious and grasping. In the anal erotic stage the child is taught restraint and ability to contain his feces. They come to regard this as their own property and as a source of pride. Those whose sublimation remains at the stage of anal eroticism are marked by desire to possess and save things. They are prudent and rationalistic. They save time and energy, etc. When in the succeeding genital erotic stage the person is denied the right to obtain the necessary satisfaction of his sexual impulse, a regression to the anal erotic stage ensues, and the sublimation of anal sexuality takes the above forms. Anal erotic sublimation is the most common character trait of our present bourgeois society and accounts for the predominance of economic values. Thus anal eroticism is a spur to capitalist economic activity. It is necessary to make distinctions in treating the various social classes from this point of view because their different social positions allow different types of sexual satisfaction. Also ideology sometimes has an autonomous force which, however, should not be overestimated in comparison with the libido as a source of social activity. (I, 4).—E.A.S.

## II. THE FAMILY

140. **BOVERAT, FERNAND.** *La famille nombreuse* [The Large Family]. *Le Musée Social*, XL, No. 1 (1933), 1-11.—Prior to 1914, parents of six to eight children were ridiculed in France, but it is now recognized that defeat would have been inevitable had not these families supplied three, four, or more sons to the army. The present rarity of large families is menacing occidental civilization. The population of France is stationary or decreasing while that of Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and Russia is increasing. The fundamental cause is decreasing French fecundity. Fourteen per cent of the French population is over sixty years of age as compared with 9 per cent in Germany and 7 per cent in Russia. The decrease of population provides less consumers and leads to state financial troubles and unstable future credit. The child is an element of individual worth and security, but help must be provided for the parents. More than money must be allocated, although this is of immediate importance; ameliorative legislation must be planned, and knowledge of these rights must be known to the heads of large families. A concerted effort must be made for the well-being of the new generations and for the prosperity of the country. (II, 3).—F.E.L.

141. **FETSCHER, R.** *Der Stand und die Zukunft der Eheberatung in Deutschland* [The Status and Future of Matrimonial Counsel in Germany]. *Zeitschrift für psychologische Hygiene*, VI (1933), 85-91.—Of the 98 German and Austrian cities having more than 50,000 inhabitants, 49 have centers where advice concerning marriage and related matters may be obtained. Although the organization and viewpoint of these centers are so varied that their work is not comparable, yet the idea has taken root. The first question in connection with the subject is whether counsel concerning marriage is possible, and if so, what kind of program is advisable. Eugenic problems are only part of the concern of such centers, because independently of marriage as well as within it advice is sought on other matters. Voluntary consultation reaches only a small proportion of engaged couples, but those who are urged to come to the center conceal their most vital difficulties. Experience has shown that it is unwise to require a health certificate before marriage. Fetscher outlines a plan to overcome these drawbacks, the essential features of which are: every person before entering matrimony would be required to file with the counsellor a history of himself and his family. The counsellors would be specially trained physicians appointed by the state. Consultation would be voluntary. One of the possibilities of this system would be the gradual formation of an "inventory" of the congenitally defective population and, when legal authority was given, sterilization (II, 3).—M. F. Morse. (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts*.)

142. **POPENOE, PAUL.** *Divorce and Remarriage from a Eugenic Point of View.* *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 48-50.—The question is what sort of people

are getting divorced? On the one hand it has been supposed that the divorced person would profit by the previous mistakes. On the other hand it has been said that the people who get divorce have undesirable and inferior personalities and that if they remarried they would simply make more mistakes. To solve the question the author procured information concerning a little more than 1,000 remarriages of divorced persons. The happiness of these marriages was rated by close friends or relatives. In these remarriages nearly two-thirds are considered happy. Only those marriages were taken which had lasted at least five years. They are from every part of the United States and are homogeneous in so far as they might be called the normal, educated part of the population. Tabulations of more than 10,000 other marriages show that about 70 per cent of the marriages of more than five years' duration in the normal, educated part of the whole American population can be considered happy. (II, 3).—*M.V.A.*

### III. PEOPLES AND CULTURAL GROUPS

143. ČHALUPNÝ, E. *Prolegomena k Československé sociologii venkova* [Prolegomena of Czechoslovak Rural Sociology]. *Věstník Československé Akademie Zemědělské*, IX, No. 5 (April, 1933), 229-34.—Rural sociology in its present form has its foundation in America. European literature is limited to individual works, like Bláha's *Sociologie sedláka a dělníka* (*Sociology of the peasant and the worker*). The American example is not, however, sufficient for central European conditions. The more complicated cultural formations of the Slavs are largely based on the peasant foundations. (III, 3).—*J.S.R.*

### IV. CONFLICT AND ACCOMMODATION GROUPS

144. BLONDEL, GEORGES. *A propos de desarroi de l'Europe, impressions de voyage* [With Respect to Unsettled Europe]. *Le Musée Social*, XL, No. 2 (1933), 33-44.—The present economic crisis is universal, and its causes so many that enumeration is impossible. All countries have turned toward protectionism, more than fifty having increased tariffs in the past ten years. Credit is too fragile as a basis for industry and has been abused. Overproduction in agriculture is as senseless as in industry. Although each country is trying for some individual advantage, it would be possible to better transportation, to modify certain tariffs, and to manage better the navigable waterways, especially the Danube. The war developed many new governmental needs. State intervention is dangerous; statesmen must find the corrective measures, but they are inspired by commercial politics of solidarity. The economic crisis is connected with a moral crisis, which is disturbing for the future. (IV, 2).—*F.E.L.*

145. JOHNSON, GUY M. *The Negro and the Depression in North Carolina*. *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 103-15.—This is a summary of a statistical study on the effects of the depression on the Negro and race relations in North Carolina. The social and economic status of the Negro makes it inevitable that he suffer seriously from the effects of the present depression. The proportion of unemployed among the Negroes is relatively much greater than among the whites. Half of the Negro workers in North Carolina are in agriculture and are living on the merest margin. Among Negroes of the middle and upper classes earnings have shrunk, homes, savings, insurance, and business have been swept away. The enrolment in elementary schools has increased, but many of the pupils suffer for the lack of food, clothing, and books. The Negro colleges have suffered cuts in their budgets as well as in enrolment. Sickness and death rates have increased, and also illegitimacy and crime. The economic depression is, however, driving the people of both races together. In business and commercial relations of the races the behavior of white people has become, on the whole, more courteous and considerate. (IV, 2).—*M.V.A.*

146. ZELIGS, ROSE, and HENDRICKSON, GORDON. *Racial Attitudes of Two Hundred Sixth-Grade Children*. *Sociology and Social Research*, XVIII, No. 1 (1933), 26-36.—The investigation is an attempt to discover the actual racial attitudes of two hundred children whose chronological age was eleven years and ten months. Bogardus' social distance questionnaire was modified by using language which the children would comprehend, by having the children place a circle before those races with which they

were not familiar, and by adding three more races, American Indian, Arab, and American. Reactions to the thirty-nine races or nationalities were secured on the basis of seven relationships: cousin, chum, roommate, playmate, neighbor, classmate, and schoolmate. Highly differential reactions were secured for these social relationships and the various races. While there was a high correlation (from  $+.86$  to  $+.96$ ) between the reactions of Jewish and non-Jewish children and the attitudes of girls and boys, the Jewish group was found to be somewhat more reserved, especially in the primary relationships of "cousin," "roommate," "chum," and the girls were decidedly more reserved than the boys. The Jewish children showed racial attitudes highly correlated ( $+.86$ ) with those of Jewish adults ascertained by Bogardus. A high correlation between the degree of acquaintanceship and racial tolerance was found for all the races except the Negro. (IV, 2).—*H.J.L.*

147. LEUBUSCHER, C. •Heinrich Herkner als Sozialpolitiker [Heinrich Herkner as a Social Politician]. *Schmollers Jahrbuch*, LVII, No. 1 (February, 1933), 13-25.—Herkner's methodological approach to social problems was synthetic. He entered the field of economics and politics from a practical standpoint, and in his desire to shape social life he entered the field of empirical investigation. He has been recognized by some as a follower of the historical descriptive method. However, his tendency toward synthesis has placed him between the representatives of pure theory and the adherents of inductive, empirical investigation. He was a social liberal, not out of an inclination toward compromise, but because he saw a powerful creative synthesis of ideas in the development of human history. For him the economic question was not only a matter of social legislation in the narrow sense, but it was also the central social problem of the industrial people whose ethical and cultural sides were no less important than their social and economic activities. His interest in social reform led him to a consideration of value judgments, and their admissibility in social science. Herkner has enriched and advanced social politics as a science in three special directions. First, he lay the scientific foundation of social politics by breaking away from the old doctrinaire socialism. Second, as one of the first in German national economy he directed attention to the psychical effects of the modern industrial processes. And third, he saw the fundamental significance of better agrarian conditions whereby a large portion of the people were able to support themselves on farms. (IV, 3).—*C.H.S.*

#### V. POPULATION AND TERRITORIAL GROUPS

148. HUNTINGTON, ELLSWORTH. A Neglected Tendency in Eugenics. *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 1-8.—The tendency toward small families began in the upper levels of society and worked downward. What the upper classes do today, the lower classes are likely to do tomorrow. The study made by the author, based upon the persons of Huntington descent in the United States, shows that from 1680 until 1810 the families averaged not far from seven children apiece. But beginning with those who were married from 1811 to 1820 and whose families were born mainly between 1815 and 1835, there was a tremendous decline in the number of children. This continued at a gradually decreasing rate until 1880, and the couples who were married from 1881 to 1890 had an average of only 3.18 children. Since 1880, however, there has been no further change in the number of children. The study of the author, and also of others such as Eden of Stockholm, shows that the rate of children in the upper classes is increasing. Hence it can be suggested that the diminution in families arising from birth control has run its course among the upper classes. (V, 2, 3).—*M.V.A.*

149. NOTESTEIN, FRANK W. The Differential Rate of Increase among the Social Classes of the American Population. *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 17-33.—This is a study based on the data secured by the Milbank Memorial Fund from the census schedules of 1900 and 1910, which seem to confirm the conclusions of Baber, Ross, Sydenstricker, Pearl, Ogburn, and Tibbitts that fertility and social status are and have been for some time inversely related. (V, 2).—*M.V.A.*

150. ČVAŇČARA, F. Svaz zemědělských pracovníků vědeckých ze severských zemí [The Association of Scientific Agricultural Workers from Northern Lands]. *Věstník Československé Akademie Zemědělské*, X, No. 5 (May, 1933), 332-33.—The Association edits

its own publication. Each country (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, and Iceland) forms one section each, electing its own chairmen for two years by correspondence. The main task of the Association is to publish a complete bibliography of agricultural literature of all northern countries. The organization had 1,260 active members in 1932 (419 Swedish, 247 Norwegian, 308 Danish, 252 Finnish, and 34 from Iceland). (V, 3).—*J.S.R.*

151. JENKINS, R. L. Measurement of Attraction of Communities. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXVIII, No. 2 (1933), 123-35.—Individuals prefer one community as a place of residence to another. It is postulated that accessibility between communities competing for migrants being equal, the community chosen will be the one with the "greatest attraction." A method is proposed to compare the relative attraction of communities. The attraction of urban centers or other centers of convergent migratory movement and the mobility of local population are measurable. The algebraic expressions of the formulas are derived analytically and from observation of actual migratory movements. Migration of physicians to leading American cities is investigated, and the relative "attractiveness" of these cities is computed. (V, 4), (IX, 2).—*A.L.H.R.*

152. REICH, EDVARD. Mezinárodní organizace zemědělského tisku [International Organization of Agrarian Press]. *Věstník Československé Akademie Zemědělské*, IX, No. 1 (January, 1933), 65-67.—The first congress was held in Rome on October 27, 1932, at which representatives of twenty states were present. A committee was appointed to study the possibility of a permanent organization. (V, 6).—*J.S.R.*

#### VI. COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR

153. LERRIGO, RUTH A. A Community Learning How To Play. *The Survey*, LXIX, No. 8 (August, 1933), 283.—Newark, New Jersey, is developing a community-wide recreation service. They hope to provide a well-balanced play program for every member in the family. The distance people must go, the diversity of population interests, and special needs are some of the factors involved in locating and providing facilities for the various portions of the city. The adult and school-age activities are developed around the club idea. These range from purely athletic activities to classes in cooking, reducing, dancing, a baby-tending department, and vocal and instrumental musical organizations. All of this is under the Recreation Department of the city school system. (VI, 4).—*F.L.W.*

#### VII. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

154. DOTRENS, R. L'éducation nouvelle et l'enseignement public [The New Education and Public Instruction]. *Revue Internationale de Sociologie*, XLI, Nos. 1-2 (January-February, 1933), 27-39.—Problems of education have thus far been envisaged psychologically. It is now necessary to insist upon the sociological aspect of the educational problem. Education must be studied in its relation to social evolution in order to determine what kind of education is most capable of introducing the necessary reforms in public instruction. To keep abreast of social evolution, education must have as its aims: (1) a rapid and certain adaptation of the individual to the increasing complexity of collective life; and (2) formation of a social conscience in the individual. In public instruction there is a pedagogical traditionalism which repels necessary progress. To introduce a new education into public instruction it is necessary: (1) to free educational institutions from all abusive restraint and political intervention, (2) to train educators to inculcate a new spirit of education. Experimental schools, like those in Geneva, are necessary to determine what new methods are reasonably adaptable in public instruction. (VII, 6).—*C.H.S.*

#### VIII. SOCIAL PROBLEMS, SOCIAL PATHOLOGY, AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS

155. DUPRAT, G. L. Une contribution à l'étude sociologique de l'habitat humain [A Contribution to the Sociological Study of the Human Habitat]. *Revue Internationale de Sociologie*, XLI, Nos. 1-2 (January-February, 1933), 63-68.—A serious problem of



158. LAZARSFELD, M., and ZEISL, H. Die Arbeitslosen von Marienthal [The Unemployed of Marienthal]. *Psychologische Monographien*, V (1933), 123.—A study of the effect of continued unemployment lasting for two years or more was made in a village of 1,186 inhabitants. Among the 178 families in Marienthal, 367 depended entirely on the state. The number of those who before a certain time decided to further support the unemployed was 1,000. The unemployed were divided into three groups: (1) those who were unemployed for less than two years, (2) those who were unemployed for two years or more, and (3) those who were unemployed for more than two years and who were also over 50 years of age. The study was conducted by means of a series of questionnaires and interviews. The results show that the unemployed were generally in a state of despair and hopelessness. They were unable to find work and were dependent on the state for support. The study also found that the unemployed were often in a state of physical and mental exhaustion. They were unable to find work and were dependent on the state for support. The study also found that the unemployed were often in a state of physical and mental exhaustion. They were unable to find work and were dependent on the state for support. The study also found that the unemployed were often in a state of physical and mental exhaustion. They were unable to find work and were dependent on the state for support.

for parents, speakers for political clubs. Complete information on each of the inhabitants was gathered. The semi-monthly payment of the dole to those still entitled to it is the most important day in the village. Budgets are worked out in minute detail. Time has lost its meaning, papers remain unread, books in the (free) library unused. Health conditions have improved. At least one-sixth of each truck garden is used to raise flowers. Changes in attitude due to continued unemployment are noted. Thefts of cats, dogs, and other edibles remain unreported. Old feuds are settled. Four main types of attitude are distinguished: resigned (60 per cent of population), unbroken (23 per cent), desperate and apathetic (8 per cent). A historic review of the sociographic survey method is appended. (VIII, 1).—*H. Beaumont.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts.*)

159. ROSSELL, BEATRICE SAWYER. *The Barometer of Books. The Survey, LXIX, No. 8* (August, 1933), 280-81.—In the last three years the circulation of the public libraries has increased from 10 to 50 per cent. The chief subjects selected have been economics and vocational topics. Considerable advantage has been taken of the many reading courses and the suggestions for self-improvement available in the various libraries. (VIII, 1).—*F. L. W.*

160. WEAD, MARGARET. *The Roof Over Their Heads. The Family, Supplement, XIV, No. 5* (July, 1933), 177-88.—Replies of 104 public and private agencies to a questionnaire sent out by the Department of Studies and Information of the Family Welfare Association of America indicate that different cultural traditions and experiences confuse social workers as to their policy toward the landlords of unemployed tenants. Thirty-five agencies pay rent regularly if they are assuming full responsibility for the family. Nine agencies state a practice of paying almost no rents. Sixty have no consistent policy. About half of the agencies do not pay carrying charges on property owned by clients; half do, generally not exceeding what would be given in rent. Few report any great number of evictions by landlords for non-payment of rent. The great majority state that the uncertain rent policies cause tension and suffering among clients even when their goods are not actually put on the street. (VIII, 1).—*T. K. N.*

161. BRUCE, ANDREW A., and ROSMARIN, SHURL. *The Gunman. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, XXIV, No. 3* (1933), 521-51.—Laws designed to protect the citizenry from the indignity of arrest and search by over-zealous police have come to yield more protection to the criminal than the citizen. In Illinois recently a number of cases have arisen in which known criminals were charged with carrying concealed weapons. In most of these cases the charges were dismissed. There was evidence that they carried the weapons, but the evidence was gained illegally. The statute, literally interpreted, provides only for search on the order of the court. (VIII, 2).—*T. G. H.*

162. ROHDEN, F. v. *Methoden der Kriminalbiologie [The Methods of Criminal Biology]. Handbuch der biologischen Arbeitsmethoden, IV, No. 12* (1933), 581-829.—This is the first time that an attempt has been made to present an exhaustive, methodological, and critical résumé of criminal biology. This field may be thought of as a subdivision of human biology; it seeks to describe the criminal as an entirety (*Ganzheit*), particular emphasis being placed upon "crimino-plastic" dispositions. In this, criminal biology proceeds along the lines of a study of human constitutions. The work should be undertaken only by the psychiatrist, although he will undoubtedly need the assistance of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and criminology. Bibliography. (VIII, 2).—*P. Plaut.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts.*)

163. ABBOTT, GRACE. *Child Health Recovery. Survey Midmonthly, LXIX, No. 10* (October, 1933), 349-50.—This is a brief report of the Child Health Recovery Conference convened by Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins on October 6, 1933, in Washington. Data are presented from a sampling of scattered local studies showing a rise in malnutrition among pre-school and school children. The Mulberry Health Center in New York City reports a rise of from 17.7 per cent to 36.7 per cent in malnutrition cases among children from two to six years of age examined from 1927-29 to 1930-32. The percentage of malnutrition among school children examined by the City Health Department in New York City mounted from 13.5 in 1927 to 21.1 in 1932. The Com-

munity Health Center of Philadelphia reports an increase from 30.5 per cent to 41.5 per cent among children 6 to 12 and from 28.5 per cent to 42.5 per cent among children 13 to 16 between the years 1928 and 1932. On the basis of these and other representative studies the author estimates that one-fifth of all pre-school and school children may now be said to be undernourished. (VIII, 3).—*C.E.H.*

164. STEVENSON, HAROLD R. *Why Mothers Die. Survey Midmonthly*, LXIV, No. 10 (October, 1933), 350-51.—The findings of a study of more than sixteen thousand confinement cases in Cleveland in 1931 are here summarized. The study was made by Dr. Richard A. Bolt, director of the Cleveland Child Health Association. Almost a third of the deaths among these women followed abortions, including so-called "criminal abortions." Dr. Bolt concludes that abortions have been on the increase since the World War and may be one of the main factors in the stationary or increasing puerperal mortality rates in this country.\* Seven critical methodological and interpretive notes are quoted from the original study. (VIII, 3).—*C.E.H.*

165. JAMIESON, G. R., and WALL, J. H. *Some Psychiatric Aspects of Suicide. Psychiatric Quarterly*, VII (1933), 211-29.—One of the outstanding features of the twenty-five cases of suicide that are briefly reviewed in this article is the usually very severe hypochondriacal trend, which may be called a narcissistic regression. That is, the energy (libido) that ordinarily finds an outlet in sublimation and objectivity returns to the individual. It is appropriate to suggest that the whole reaction is out of keeping with any conscious motivation. The essential features consistently present in this group of suicides show that hypochondriacal and nihilistic ideas, with veiled death wishes, are often present; and apprehension and agony concerning the possible effects of insomnia and a persistent feeling of becoming insane may frequently be noted. In some cases a sense of guilt with persistent belief and concern about punishment is found. This review is based upon hospital cases, and the long period of years covered to include such a group is filled with histories of frustrated attempts at suicide. The authors feel that the family physician and the general public should be educated so that danger signals may be recognized and the suicidal death rate lowered through preventive measures. (VIII, 4).—*E. T. Burr.* (Courtesy of *Psychological Abstracts*.)

166. KINBERG, OLOF. *On So-Called Vagrancy—A Medico-Sociological Study. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XXIV, Nos. 2-3 (1933), 409-27; 552-83.—Any attempted explanation of vagrancy in Sweden must take into account the following facts: a high percentage of vagrants are mentally abnormal; approximately half of all vagrants are alcoholists; abuse of alcohol is often allied to an abnormal constitution; approximately 70 per cent of vagrants are criminals. There is a movement of vagrants from small towns and rural sections to the cities. Explanations in terms of social environment fail because we seek the environment that fits our constitution. Environment is a function of inherited propensity. (VIII, 4).—*T.G.H.*

167. OUY, A. *Le suicide [Suicide]. Revue Internationale de Sociologie*, XLI, Nos. 1-2 (January-February, 1933), 68-73.—Two opposing views of suicide are represented by M. Halbwachs, a disciple of Durkheim, and F. Achille Delmas. The former treats suicide as an exclusively social phenomenon, while the latter explains suicide upon a biological basis. Halbwachs, following Durkheim, emphasizes statistics in his approach to the study of suicide whereas Delmas stresses the psychiatric viewpoint and at the same time indicates the fallacies in the statistical method, such as: the disregard of unsuccessful cases of suicide, the absence of a universal definition of the term which prevents accurate comparisons, etc. To Delmas suicide is the act by which a person who has the choice of living chooses to die, regardless of ethical obligations. While Durkheim includes accidental and intentional deaths under the category of suicide, Delmas excludes all accidental cases. For the latter, a person who commits suicide has always a psychopathological tendency. He ignores Japanese cases of Hara-Kiri as evidence of social causation. Both viewpoints are one-sided. The fact that man is a living being with biological, social, and psychological dimensions is ignored. An adequate explanation of suicide must always recognize these three aspects of man's nature. (VIII, 4).—*C.H.S.*

168. SHIMBERG, M. E., and REICHENBERG, W. The Success and Failure of Subnormal Problem Children in the Community. *Mental Hygiene*, XVII (July, 1933), 451 ff.—This study seeks to throw light on the social adjustment of those feeble-minded who are never placed under institutional care. One hundred eighty-nine defective children were studied over a period of five and one-half years. The background of the individual seemed to have little relationship to success or failure. A slight correlation was found between economic status and outcome. A positive correlation existed between good personality traits and success. The factor of supervision was important. In 77 per cent of the cases, success followed carrying-out of the recommendations of the supervisor. Where the recommendations were not followed, 60 per cent of failures resulted. (VIII, 4).—R.A.B.

#### IX. THEORY AND METHODS

169. ELLWOOD, CHARLES A. Observation and the Survey Method in Sociology. *Social Forces*, XII, No. 1 (October, 1933), 51-57.—The phenomena studied by sociology are dissimilar in nature to those studied by the natural sciences, and therefore require different methods of investigation, although the methods of the natural sciences must be used whenever possible. Two sorts of monographs are possible. The one is the case study, the other the community or regional survey. The case study throws considerable light upon the processes of social interaction and their results in personality and thus, also, indirectly, upon social condition. Case studies, however, are too narrow to throw any light upon the larger sociological problems connected with social evolution and cultural changes. The survey method furnishes a somewhat broader basis for the inductive study of human society. There are two mistakes which the users of the survey method in the past have committed. The first is that the social surveys which have been made have been, as a rule, too static. Another fault with the regional survey has been its failure to take into account such non-material elements of culture as traditions, values, opinions, and beliefs prevalent in the group. (IX, 1).—M.V.A.

170. NEURATH, OTTO. Museums of the Future. *Survey Graphic*, XXII, No. 9 (September, 1933), 459-63.—Dr. Neurath of the Social and Economic Museum of Vienna sets down some of the principles which have guided him in making social facts vivid and compelling. Museums in the future will be standardized, and the emphasis on securing unique exhibits will give way to an emphasis on serial exhibits. The present need is to help persons see social processes and social interrelations. The museum of the future therefore will be a social museum. To achieve this purpose symbols (pictographs and other new forms of graphic presentation) must replace, or at least supplement, photographs and statistics. A grammar of picture language must be developed and a dictionary of symbols. A special institution, the Mundaneum, has been established in Vienna, to work for general acceptance of the Vienna rules and dictionary of visualization. Nine sample illustrations supplement the text of this article. (IX, 4).—C.E.H.

171. MANN, FRITZ K. Finanzsoziologie [Finance Sociology]. *Kolner Vierteljahrshefte für Soziologie*, XII, No. 1 (August, 1933), 1-20.—Pure finance sociology investigates the financial elements in social life as a whole, i.e., the influence of all financial facts such as taxation, inflation, budget-making, etc. Public finance may be a conservative factor in society, permitting those in power to remain there, through their control of the society's wealth. It may also be revolutionary, causing changes in the social structure, permitting a class or party to weaken its enemies by taxation or to equalize wealth and social privileges by means of subventions. Adolph Wagner recommended taxation as an instrument for social reform. Public finance has contributed to the formation of capitalist rationality. It has influenced the external form of capitalist organization by strengthening industrial concentration, and accelerating the accumulation of capital and economic differentiation. More recently it has resulted in the encroachment of public ownership on the former sphere of private ownership and now seems to be leading to the liquidation of capitalism. Rudolf Goldschied, founder of finance sociology, regarded public finance as the dynamics of social change. It is necessary, however, to regard public finance as a function of society and as an instrument of the state rather than as fundamental to both. (IX, 6).—E.A.S.

175. WIESE, L. von. Skizze eines Grundrisses der Biosozio-logie als der Lehre von den Generationsgebilden [Elements of Biosociology as the Theory of Generational Social Structures]. *Kölner Vierteljahresshefte für Soziologie*, XI, Nos. 3-4 (1933), 366-86.—Biosociology is to be differentiated from social biology and is concerned with the relations between individuals and social structures. It is a new and different science from the old social biology. (P. 366.)

tween the passionate ideology which has clustered around the concept of race, which is actually political in nature, and the concept of race as a biological factor in social life. (IX, 6).—*E.A.S.*

176. SOMMER, L. *Sozialwissenschaftliche Bausteine* [Sociological Materials]. *Schmollers Jahrbuch*, LVII, No. 1 (February, 1933), 107-113.—In the writings of F. R. Mann, an attempt is made to contrast sociological thought in Germany and France. Sociological thought must be observed in its entirety; hence the historical setting from which sociology developed must be noted. The romantic view of history, intellectual history, economic theories, and developments in the natural sciences, especially biology, stimulated the development of sociology. Intellectual history is the starting-point of his system; both his economic and social program emphasize the historical thought of continuity. In addition to Comte and Spencer, he was one of the early founders of biological sociology. In opposition to Schäffle's views are those of Othmar Spann. In France, sociological thought is divided between the views of Comte and Durkheim. "Social Consensus" is the core of Comte's system. Logically related to this is Tarde's theory of imitation. The view of Durkheim does not permit a conception of society as an organic unit in its functional relations. According to Sommer, this distorted view of Durkheim is regrettable inasmuch as the theoretical background of his collective idea is not considered. The Tarde-Duprat tendency points to a close affinity with that of Othmar Spann, while Durkheim's sociology finds a counterpart in the formalistic theory of Simmel and the theory of relationships of L. v. Wiese. In conclusion, Max Weber is the master of German sociology. His concept of the ideal type has a highly scientific function. (IX, 7).—*C.H.S.*

# THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY

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## FOREWORD

The precedent of publishing in May a study of the social changes of the preceding year, by the editors of the *American Journal of Sociology*, has special significance at this time. The year 1933 was one of extraordinary political and economic activity, which overshadowed the general course of events. For this reason it seems proper to focus the annual analysis on the recovery and reconstruction achievements with little reference to other changes.

The developments of the year have had back of them the drive of powerful emotions, and the wisdom of trying to appraise so dynamic a movement at close range may be doubted. The verdict of history is wiser after a period of years. However, the various contributors have undertaken to make their appraisal in an atmosphere of scientific detachment. Some readers may feel that this is no time for detachment but is rather a time for action. To the supporters of the movement, calm appraisal may appear to be damning with faint praise. The writers were not selected to carry on propaganda for or against, but rather on the basis of their acknowledged competence to make a judicial appraisal. There has been no attempt to mold, through editing, the contributions toward a common viewpoint. Each contributor is alone responsible for his analysis. While there may be some bias, writing so near the firing line has certain advan-

tages not possessed by the historian of later years. And so these papers are offered in the hope that they will contribute to the understanding of this eventful year.

WILLIAM F. OGBURN



## THE BACKGROUND OF THE NEW DEAL

WILLIAM F. OGBURN

### ABSTRACT

It is the magnitude of the decline of our material civilization which explains the governmental effort to achieve recovery and reconstruction. Government and economics are only a part of our civilization. Religion, education, travel, communication, reading, family life, marriage and divorce, philanthropy, crime and insanity—all will experience derivative effects, however.

The dramatic events of the year 1933 usually characterized as the New Deal are not to be viewed as something apart. They have their setting in the culture of the time. Their roots run back into the preceding years. The following papers, which deal with various aspects of these governmental and economic movements, might well have been introduced by developing the historical antecedents, and by showing their connections with the many phases of our social life. Instead, however, there are offered, for the sake of brevity, four pages of charts setting forth a carefully selected series of social trends. They were chosen because of what they show about the welfare of the nation, as well as a setting for the New Deal. They reveal that the New Deal is confined only to the sphere of our social and economic welfare. Births, deaths, marriages, divorces, crime, insanity, and religion continue their respective courses and are not now the object of any exceptional effort to modify them. The social effort of 1933 was directed primarily toward pulling us out of the depression and toward planning a reconstruction of our economic organization. Better times will have derivative effects on the whole of our culture, as the accompanying charts suggest. Indeed, the program of the New Deal indicates considerations far beyond the economic.

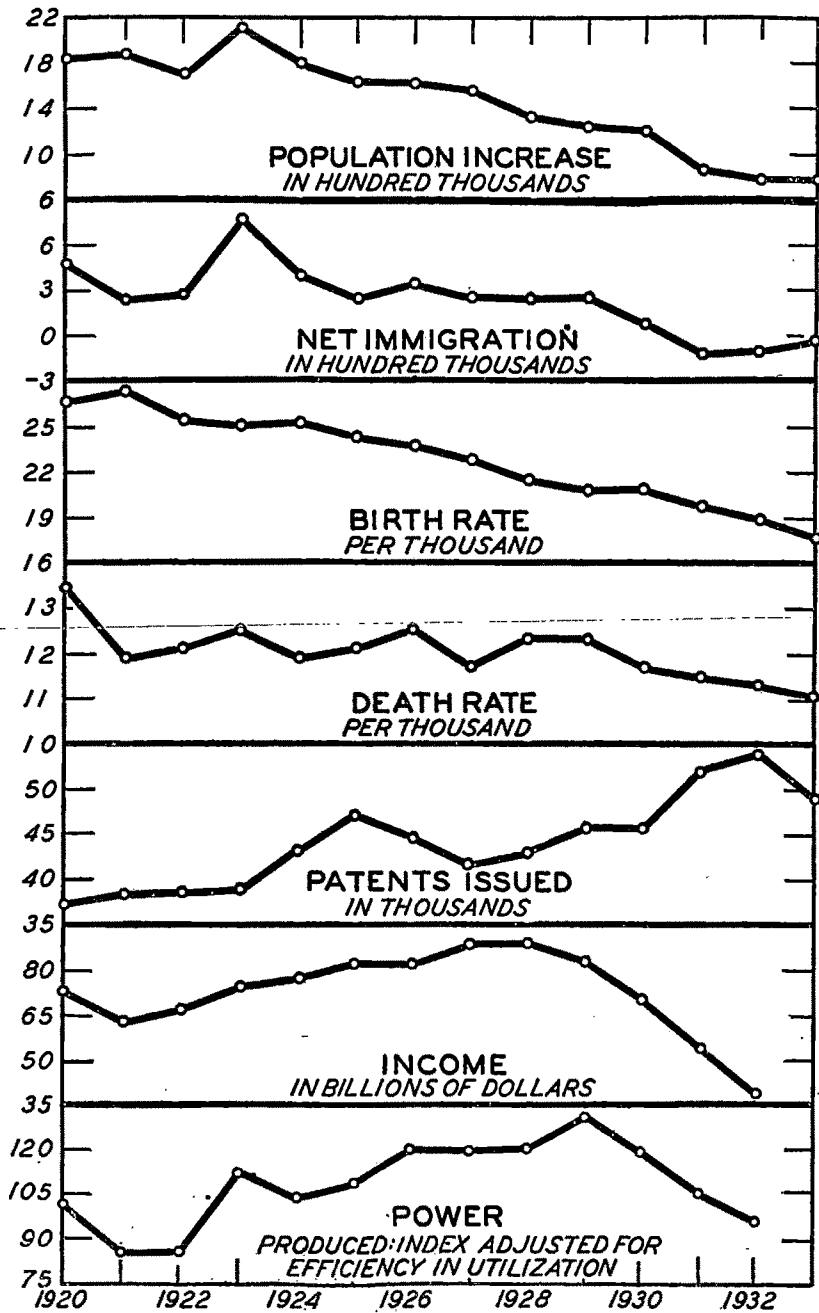
The social trends here depicted tell much of the statistical story that led up to the movement associated with the Roosevelt administration. For instance, the vigor of the recovery effort is foreshadowed by the depth of the depression. How deep it was is shown by the precipitous drop of so many of the curves<sup>1</sup> during the last three

<sup>1</sup> *Birth-rates and death-rates:* For the whole United States. Rates for the states outside the registration area have been estimated by Professors Warren Thompson and P. K. Whelpton, who have also furnished the data on yearly population increase.

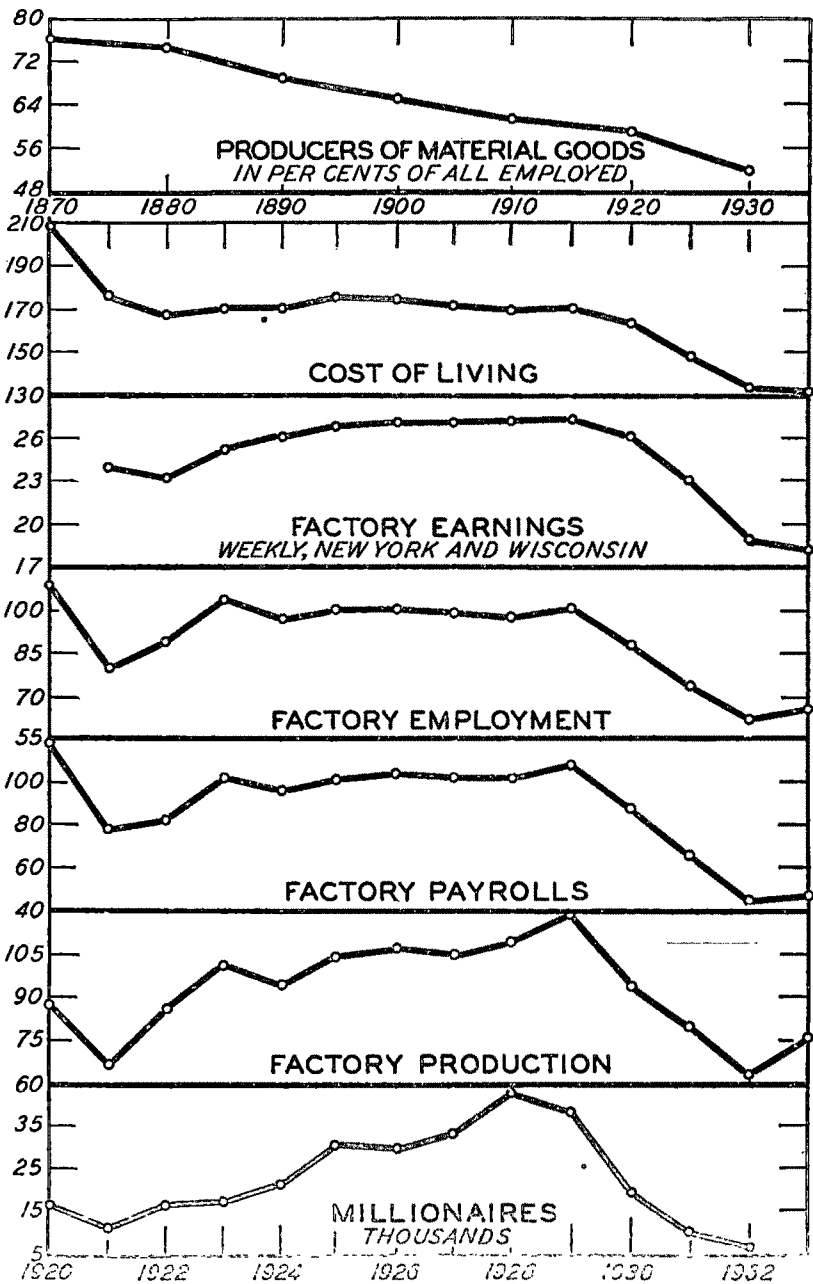
*Power:* From water and mineral fuels in the United States. It has been adjusted to

[Footnote continued on page 734]

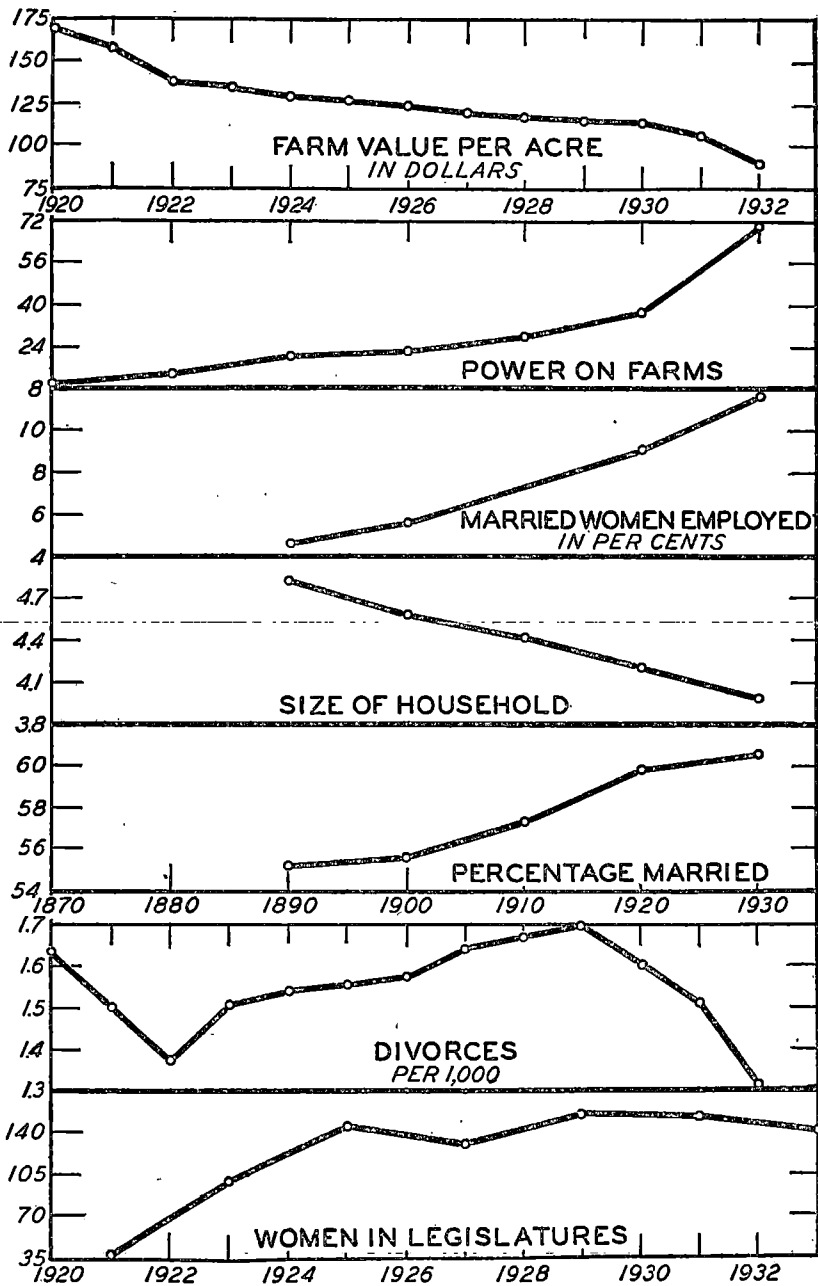
# SOCIAL TRENDS AND THE WELFARE OF THE NATION



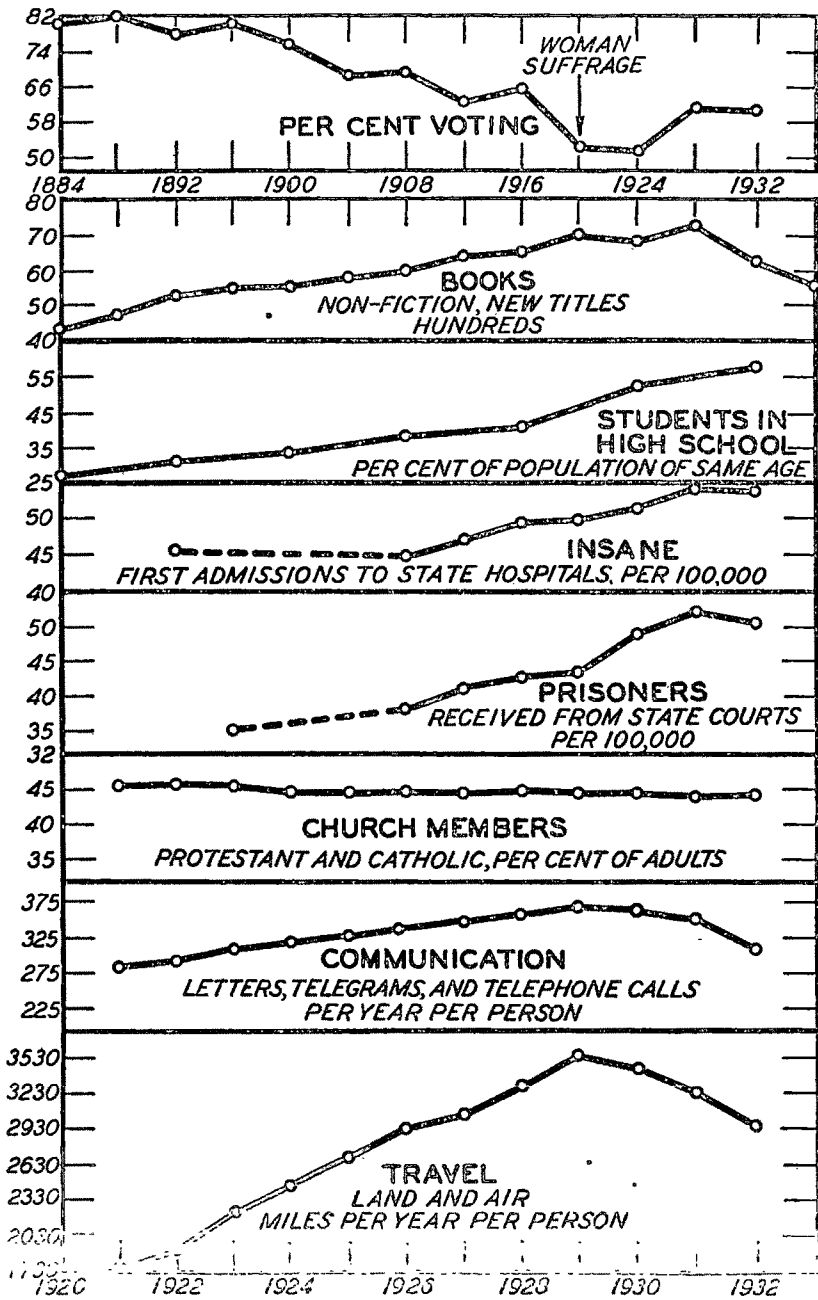
# SOCIAL TRENDS AND THE WELFARE OF THE NATION



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or four years. National income was cut in half. It is beyond measurement, or even imagination, to show the terrific effects of such a catastrophe indicated by this curve. The decline of weekly earnings, employment, and pay-rolls by a third or a half emphasizes the tragedy. From these we can see what the Republican administration was up against. The level of the lines and the drop therefrom show how far backward our material civilization has fallen. Are we on a permanent new level? If not, then recovery under the Democratic administration has a long way to go. •

There are four factors that contribute to a high standard of living: population, natural resources, inventions, and economic organization. The first curve of the series shows that the increase of the population is less and less. It may thus be interpreted as a favorable factor, particularly since there is a drop in the employment curve of 40 per cent. The curve of patents indicates that technological development is proceeding, although it takes some time for a patent to

an estimated increase in efficiency in utilization of power of 15 per cent in a decade. Power on farms includes windmills and animals.

*Size of household:* a household includes relatives, lodgers, and servants living in.

*Producers of material goods* are defined as those engaged in manufacturing, mining, and agriculture.

*Employment, factory pay-rolls, and production index numbers* are from the Federal Reserve Board.

*Millionaires* are defined as those receiving an income of over \$50,000 a year.

*Per cent voting:* The figures were supplied by Professor Harold F. Gosnell and are based upon those eligible to vote, including the southern states. Woman suffrage was exercised first in 1920 in presidential elections.

*Church membership:* Protestants include Baptists, Methodists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Congregationalists, Disciples of Christ, and Lutherans. Roman Catholic adult membership is assumed to be those over thirteen years of age, and were estimated as 73 per cent of the total membership listed. The rates are on an estimated population of the whole United States over thirteen years old.

*Communication:* The number of telephone calls is for the whole United States and, together with the number of telegrams, were furnished by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. The number of letters for the calendar years are estimated from the statistics submitted by the post-office for fiscal years which end June 30. It was necessary to interpolate for 1921, 1922, 1924, and 1925.

*Travel:* Passenger-miles in automobiles was determined by multiplying the number of automobiles registered by an average load, assumed to be 2.2 persons, and this product by the average mileage per car per year, assumed to be 5,000 miles in 1920 and 7,000 miles in 1929 and the years following. For the intervening years gradations were assumed. Air travel is for scheduled planes. The average distance for an individual journey in electrical vehicles is 3 miles per trip.

be put into extensive use. The amount of power produced, equivalent to about one hundred slaves per person, suggests abundant natural resources. Three of the factors seem to be favorable. It is the fourth, economic organization, that has caused the degradation in our standard of living. Hence, here is the frontal attack of the new administration.

There is no crisis in the population problem. Emigration exceeds immigration. The birth-rate falls more rapidly than the death-rate. Indeed, the death-rate will rise while the birth-rate will continue to fall. But these reductions in the rate of increase of the population will not come quickly enough to alleviate the present unemployment, which may continue, though in smaller volume, for some time.

Neither is the crisis one in technology. The growing influence of invention is more or less continuous, as suggested by the decline in the percentage of the employed who make material objects, from 75 per cent to 50 per cent in sixty years. Machines have taken the places of men, who have later gone into other occupations such as the professions, exchange, and transportation. The movement was accentuated during the past decade, but it has not been sudden. Furthermore, employment prior to 1929 did not rise as rapidly as did production, showing how inventions have increased productivity. The result was a higher standard of living, as proved by the fact that weekly earnings went up while the cost of living remained the same. This was in the days when it seemed that prosperity was permanent. But all this was changed with the breakdown of the economic system, which affected so many phases of our life. Income has been redistributed in many ways. Those receiving an income of \$50,000 a year decreased from 40,000 to 7,000. In agriculture, the protest vote has been accumulating since 1920, as is suggested by the decline of the value of farm lands since that time. The agricultural situation is further aggravated by the greatly increased productivity per unit of labor due to the rapid introduction of power machines on the farm. The power age has had its *locus* in cities, but from 1920 to 1930 the mechanization of farms proceeded swiftly, with profound social results.

There are many social dangers other than economic or political of great human significance that are not the object of specific en-

deavor on the part of the federal administration. Thus, among women, inventions have taken their old household occupations away from them and now one in eight or nine married women is employed outside the home, while the size of the household has decreased to four persons. Divorces have been increasing rapidly for forty years or longer, but the percentage of persons married has not decreased. The decrease in the number of divorces during the depression has been much greater than in other depressions. There is no very good index of the political activity of women. It increased rather markedly after the granting of suffrage and seems to have maintained a steady course since.

Neither are there any good series to indicate the trend of our artistic and intellectual interests. The number of titles of new books has been increasing but declined sharply in the later stages of the depression. The number of high-school students is a particularly important index. Nearly all children now get an elementary education, but few nations except the United States give a free high-school education to other than a very small percentage of youth. Yet not to have a high-school education is a bar to most of the opportunities of advancement in life in our country.

We know little about the trends of insanity and of crime. The population of insane hospitals is increasing, and there are reasons to think that the insane population of the nation is increasing also; but it is not certain. Crime is supposed to be on the increase. In a business depression crime generally increases, but in 1932 the number of prisoners received from the courts decreased, as did also crimes known to the police. Church membership is said to grow in a depression, but our statistics do not show this to be the case during the 1930's. Indeed, since the war, church membership has been about the same.

One of the great characteristics of modern times is growth of communication and the increase in the mobility of the population. In other parts of the world and in other times life was quieter without the telephone and the automobile, and the pace was less rapid without the telegraph and the locomotive. The first phase of the industrial revolution was characterized by steam and factory; the second phase, occurring in the twentieth century, by the communi-



cation inventions. Both communication and travel have grown enormously since the World War, and their decline during the depression seems to be somewhat less than in other series, though the indexes are not all that could be wished for as to accuracy.

The greater portion of the trends of our time are not measured in statistical series. These intangibles are described in the following papers. The purpose here is rather to present a few of the most significant indicators of where we are going, of what has happened to us in the last few years, and of how far we shall have to go to get back where we were in a material way at the close of the first quarter of our century. The New Deal may be a revolution in organized effort and basic ideology, but the indicators so far show no revolution in the trends they measure.

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## ECONOMIC RECOVERY

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### ABSTRACT

The year 1933 must remain memorable for the part played by conscious and deliberate action. Recovery was sought through a major change in monetary standards, extension of government expenditures, correction of an unbalanced state of production, and application to industry of consciously applied controls. Resumption of production activities, restoration of the flow of capital funds, and correction of debtor-creditor inequities and major inequalities of income were conditions of recovery. In the field of production there were many cross-currents of change, but the total output of physical goods in 1933 exceeded by some 9 per cent that in 1932. The effect of the movement in prices between February and July was to correct discrepancies between groups of commodities, but after July the tendency was otherwise, and by the end of the year the disparity remained. The net changes during the year probably modified but slightly the distorted income structure of 1933. Substantial relief was brought to important groups of debtors, but the story of debt relief through dollar devaluation remains unfinished. The course of recovery to date raises four questions: (1) as to the outcome of the monetary issue, (2) the financing of industry and trade in the years ahead, (3) the place of government in the working of the economic system, (4) the function of control in the system developed. The major issue probably centers on the achievement of a working compromise between freedom and control, without impairment of the forces that have stimulated the recovery already achieved.

Whether we are witnessing an economic revolution or a passing incident in the development of this country, the year 1933 must remain memorable for the part that conscious and deliberate action played in economic change. We may, consulting the business records of the year and tracing movements of production, prices, employment, payrolls, and interest rates, discern some differences between these movements and those of earlier cyclical recoveries. But the fundamental points of difference lie deeper. A major change was made in monetary standards in an attempt to check deflation and to restore the debtor-creditor relations of pre-recession years. The character of national spending, viewed as a whole, was profoundly modified, with governmental expenditures swelling to massive proportions to fill the gap caused by the curtailment of private expenditures. The disbursement of credit became a governmental function, and the entire financial structure was buttressed through governmental action. The correction of an unbalanced state of production was sought through the deliberate destruction of economic goods,

with governmental sponsorship and support. Finally, there was launched a movement looking toward the reconstruction of industry and the substitution, on a scale new in our history, of consciously applied controls, in place of the traditional controls achieved through the balancing action of freely moving forces. This fact of positive action on many fronts underlies and dominates the record of recovery that began in the spring of 1933.

This recovery must be viewed against the background of a depression of exceptional severity, a depression which had warped and twisted the entire economic system, disrupting trade relations, and creating jarring disparities among price groups and income classes. The re-attainment of a working equilibrium of economic forces at a level of normal efficiency called for correction, adaptation, and readjustment at numerous points in the economic system. In the field of production the resumption of activity in industries producing durable goods in general, and capital equipment in particular, was necessary to the restoration of a balanced structure. Related to this was a larger problem—the adaptation of our total production structure to the new international situation of the post-war period. No permanent adaptation was effected during the 1920's, and the wave of economic nationalism which was given new force by the depression intensified the problem.

The restoration of the flow of capital funds was another condition of enduring recovery. A carry-over of large productive capacity from the expansion of the 'twenties, the lack of any surety of prospective profits from the creation of new equipment, and fear of the future, which deterred long-term investments, had chilled the flow of such funds during the depression.

A third problem concerned the relief of debt burdens and the correction of debtor-creditor inequities resulting from the drastic decline of prices. The correction of major inequalities of income distribution constituted an additional critical issue. The decline of some 40 per cent in total income between 1929 and 1932 was far from even in its incidence on income recipients. Total labor income (including wages and salaries) fell 40 per cent, a decline equal to the drop in the total. The wages were, however, regaining, when a drop of 60 per cent. Total property income dropped 30 per cent

(dividends declining 57 per cent, interest payments but 3 per cent). The third category, entrepreneurial income (consisting chiefly of the returns of individual business enterprisers and farmers) declined 41 per cent. Here were fundamental shifts in the flow of the broad income streams, streams ordinarily subject only to minor changes with varying business conditions.

Of a somewhat different order were the problems of readjustment in the field of prices. The recession re-established and accentuated a general post-war schism, world-wide in scope, between the prices of raw materials and the prices of manufactured goods. Raw material prices were driven to levels far below those reached by manufactured goods. Internationally, this cleavage meant greatly depleted purchasing power on the part of raw-material producing areas, greatly reduced exports and unemployment for industrial areas. In the United States, which is both industrial and raw-material producing, this schism was an internal one—a fact having highly important economic and political consequences. This breach constituted a major obstacle to the free flow of goods in domestic markets. As a related condition, we should note that construction costs and the costs of other goods for capital equipment remained relatively high. Out of this tangled price situation, reflecting deep-seated differences in the flexibility of elements of the price and production mechanisms, there developed the log-jam which did so much to prolong the depression. Low prices of their products reduced by more than half the aggregate buying power of raw-material producers. Manufacturing volume was at a low ebb, equipment was idle, and unemployment was severe because of the inability of manufacturers to sell their relatively high-priced products. The demand for new capital equipment and for construction materials was kept down by the relatively high prices of such goods, as well as by the state of the market for long-term investment funds and by the carry-over of capital equipment from pre-depression days. Some degree of correction of the disparities created by the drastic and relatively sudden shifts in the terms of exchange between major classes of goods was essential to the restoration of a balanced and efficient economic system.

To this summary we should add reference to three distinctive features of this period—the international scope of the depression, the

acute character of the problem of relief, and the cumulative and exceptionally penetrating character of the preceding deflation. No depression of which we have record affected economic activities over so wide a front. In none was the problem of relief so pressing. In none had the process of liquidation, and the accompanying doubts, fears, and chilling of initiative, penetrated so deeply into the economic system. Strata of economic life usually immune to the forces of business cycles were affected. As a result, the stimulus to recovery usually provided by the normal activities conducted on these levels was lacking. In the winter of 1932-33 the economic system seemed close to being immobilized on a dead-center. These characteristics of the depression have a clear bearing on the processes of recovery, to which we now turn.

Economic movements in the United States in 1933 passed through three distinct phases, shading into a fourth. The first phase, extending to March, included the later stages of the relapse from the up-turn that developed in the late summer of 1932. This up-turn, a slow, but fundamental shift in the direction of the underlying current of economic change, is discernible in the production and price records of the leading industrial countries of the world. The check to this revival in the United States was probably due in part to the banking difficulties and the political uncertainties of the closing months of 1932. In March of 1933 there began a sensational four-months' advance extending to practically all elements of the economic system. Production, prices, employment, payrolls rose at unprecedented rates, in response to a changed economic outlook, to the expectation of higher costs under the new codes, and to the anticipation of a radically changed monetary situation. After July a sharp reversal occurred. The elements which had soared under the stimulus of the spring advance dropped abruptly at first, and then sagged. At the year-end a fourth stage had been reached. The decline was checked. Production and prices were again advancing, but more slowly than in the spring rise, and employment was holding steady. New forces were acting upon the economic system.

The total output of physical goods of all sorts in 1933 exceeded by some 6 per cent the output of 1932, and fell short of the output of 1929 by about 33 per cent. But these annual figures tell little of the

cross-currents of change that played in the field of production during the year. During the sensational advance of the four months from March to July the average monthly output of manufactured goods increased by 80 per cent. Among durable goods the increase amounted to about 200 per cent, while among non-durable goods there was an increase of 45 per cent. In the subsequent decline, from July to November, a large part of this advance was lost, but the year-end figures were still substantially above the records for the low month. In December total manufacturing production was 29 per cent greater than in March; the output of durable goods was 93 per cent greater, and the output of non-durable goods was 11 per cent greater. But in all cases the final figures for the year were far below the pre-recession level.

In the realm of prices, recovery took a somewhat different course. Reacting from a low, in February, 38 per cent below the peak of July, 1929, wholesale prices rose slowly for two months, then advanced with a rush for three months, to a July level 15 per cent above the February average. Detailed study of price movements shows that this was a compact upward surge, shared, though unequally, by all elements of the price system. Thereafter there was a slower advance for two months, followed by a more definite retardation, with a slight loss of ground, in the closing quarter of the year.

But here interest is not confined to changes in the general price level. The effects of this movement upon the major discrepancies which retarded the exchange of goods and distorted the distribution of income among different producing groups are of equal concern. Between February and July, 1933, the changes that were occurring within the system of prices were definitely corrective, in that they tended to restore the price relations which had prevailed prior to the recession. Low-priced commodities rose at much more rapid rates than did relatively high-priced commodities. But thereafter the movement was otherwise. The relatively high-priced goods began to move forward more rapidly, and the net result of the changes occurring between July and December was to extend the disparities which had been partially corrected between February and July.

The figures in Table I illustrate the nature of the changes taking place. The index numbers here cited relate to the average per-unit

purchasing power of commodities in the groups named, in terms of commodities in general, at wholesale.

The price movements between February and July brought a clear gain in tending to restore working relations within the economic system, but after July the correctional tendencies were reversed. The effect of these changes upon the margin which covers the cost of fabrication is perhaps most clearly revealed in the comparison of the prices of producers' goods intended for ultimate human consumption with the prices of processed consumers' goods, for here we are dealing with goods of the same general class at two different stages of the productive-distributive process. This margin was wide in February,

TABLE I  
AVERAGE PER-UNIT PURCHASING POWER OF COMMODITIES,  
1929 AND 1933

	July, 1929	Feb., 1933	July, 1933	Dec., 1933
Raw materials . . . . .	100	82	92	89
Manufactured goods . . . . .	100	111	106	107
Producers' goods for ultimate consumption . . . . .	100	74	89	84
Consumers' goods, processed . . . . .	100	108	102	103
Producers' goods for capital equipment . . . . .	100	118	108	109

1933, was substantially narrower in July, but was widened again by the end of the year.

We lack detailed data relating to the distribution of the national income in 1933. It is probable that the net changes during the year modified but slightly the distorted income structure of 1932. Some improvement occurred in the aggregate returns of wage-earners, the most seriously depressed element of the total. Factory payrolls which in March, 1933, were 67 per cent lower than at the peak of September, 1929, were in December, 1933, 53 per cent below that standard. This gain was due, in part, to increased employment (from March to December, 1933, there was a gain from 54 per cent of the 1929 peak to 67 per cent of that peak), and in part to higher hourly rates. The advance of wage rates, indeed, under the recovery program, was one of the most striking features of the 1933 recovery.

From the low of June, 1933, to December, 1933, hourly wage rates in manufacturing establishments advanced no less than 21 per cent. (The average number of hours worked per week was, of course, much lower than in 1929.)

The gross income, or aggregate purchasing power, of the major industries of the country increased substantially between 1932 and 1933. Agricultural producers gained by about 19 per cent—a figure which becomes 24 per cent if account be taken of some 290 millions of dollars paid to farmers for crop reduction. Among manufacturing industries there was a 24 per cent advance in gross income; in mining, 15 per cent. Construction industries, despite an increase in public works toward the end of the year, lost about 4 per cent in gross income.

Of the measures designed to relieve debt burdens and to correct debtor-creditor inequities no lengthy discussion is possible. The major moves were on the monetary front. The original cutting of the bond with gold played a part of undoubted importance, perhaps the major part, in checking the processes of deflation and liquidation. Later attempts to raise general prices, on the apparent assumption that the level of commodity prices is a definite function of the gold value of the dollar, had less satisfactory immediate consequences. But the price and income changes already noted, and certain measures designed to help mortgagors, brought substantial relief to important groups of debtors. For the rest, the story of debt relief through dollar devaluation remains an unfinished one.

This survey of some of the elements of the recovery movement has leaned rather heavily on the quantitative record of changes during the past year. But there is much of the story which eludes measurement in such terms, partly because of the inadequacies of the record, partly because the novel elements appearing in 1933 do not lend themselves to statistical enumeration. Certain of these other factors and conditions require to be chronicled, and points of departure from the familiar pattern of recovery noted.

We have referred to the outstanding rôle of conscious effort in the changes of the past year. The rapidity of the early advance, in the spring and summer of 1933, and the promptness with which the demoralizing atmosphere of the months preceding was dissipated were



unquestionably due to the positive efforts of the federal government. It seems equally clear, however, that conditions suitable to a gradual increase in economic activity had been established in the world generally by the summer and fall of 1932. The evidence of production records on this score is conclusive. In the United States financial demoralization and political uncertainty had maintained a continuing pressure of liquidation. Relief from these two conditions, and the expansive effect of breaking away from the gold standard, in conjunction with the forces making for slow world-improvement, brought the sharp advance that dates from March, 1933. The advance in hourly wage rates during 1933 was, again, a movement departing widely from the familiar pattern of recovery. That aggregate earnings should advance fairly rapidly with business revival and expanding employment is a familiar experience, but the increase in rates of pay early in revival is a new feature, apparently due to the provisions of the National Recovery Act.

A retardation of the first spring rush was probably to be expected on economic grounds alone. However, some of the positive actions of government appear to have contributed to this check, and to the decline in activity in the fall months. Mounting manufacturing costs and the definite limitation of price competition under many codes were apparent factors in the increase in the selling prices of finished manufactures during the second half of the year. As against this negative influence, we should note that the secondary recovery which came toward the end of 1933 was in part, at least, a consequence of governmental activities of other sorts. Disbursements to farmers and payments under the Civil Works Administration swelled to heavy volume by the end of the year. Activity under the Public Works Administration was expanding. These helped to stimulate a year-end pick-up in retail sales and contributed to a general upturn discernible in all the major indexes of business activity.

But we may not trace in their many ramifications the economic effects of the activities of the central government. That they have played a leading rôle in the course of events during the last twelve months is not to be doubted. Among the most important of the issues confronting men today are those growing out of this tremendous extension of the work of the central government. In closing

this brief account of the recovery movement I would stress four such questions raised by the course of recovery to date, and critically important as regards the future working of the economic system.

First is the set of problems centering about the monetary issue, in its international as well as its domestic aspects. Will the dollar be ultimately stabilized in terms of gold, at a value close to that named in the executive order of January 31? Will international monetary standards be re-established? Will prices respond to the reduction in the gold value of the dollar already made effective, and will a price system more conducive to normal economic activity than the distorted structure left by the depression be established?

Of another order is the second issue, already noted, but as yet unsettled. How will industry and trade be financed in the years ahead of us? Some problems which arise here relate to short-term credit, but the main question has to do with the provision of capital funds for normal industrial growth. Can the private capital market be revived? Will the flow of private, long-term funds into investment channels be restored? The foundations of permanent recovery will not have been laid until such flow is resumed, under public if not under private auspices. In the failure of the investment markets to revive, to date, lies a chief source of doubt as to the lasting qualities of the recovery so far recorded. Perhaps a resumption, under private auspices, is impossible in the near future. Some degree of monetary uncertainty persists. There is general public reluctance to make long-term commitments. Private enterprise in this field is definitely restricted by the state of demand, on the one hand, by new governmental regulations on the other. If this situation continues it is conceivable that the collection of private savings and their direction into new investment will become a governmental function. Phases of this problem must bulk large in any view of economic prospects.

A third problem, I suggest, has to do with the place of government in the working of the economic system. Within twelve months we have had such an extension of governmental activity and initiative as no peace-time period has ever known. The regulation and governmental support of the banking system, the extension of credit, the regulation of production over wide areas, the financing of public and civil works, the enforcement and, in many cases, the supervision of

industrial codes supplanting competition and containing provisions relating to small details of industrial activity, the manipulation of monetary standards and values, the provision of direct relief to millions of persons—these are but some of the manifold new activities which have brought under direct governmental employment or direction a large proportion of the total population of the country. This expansion has taken place concurrently with action designed to restrict private enterprise and to limit the place of the profit motive in important economic spheres, action prompted by revelations of fraud and of socially undesirable practices.

Any objective survey of the course of recovery must raise questions as to the future of these governmental functions. When and how will these multitudinous activities be restricted, or terminated? Will it be possible for the federal government to return to the narrower sphere within which its activities have previously fallen? Can such withdrawal, if accomplished, be co-ordinated with a resumption of private enterprise, so that the course of recovery may not be adversely affected? If there is no withdrawal, is there reasonable assurance that the economic machine will work efficiently, and that the national standard of living, in terms of goods and services available for consumption and use, may be maintained?

These queries lead directly to the fourth major problem presented by existing economic circumstances. To what extent have we, under the pressure of the emergency, developed a system which requires conscious control and regulation in the small details as well as in the larger aspects of its working? Have the older automatic or semi-automatic bases of operation and direction been destroyed, or greatly weakened, by the various regulatory provisions of recent enactments? Traditionally, a free price system provides the means of co-ordinating economic activities and of securing that detailed adjustment of working parts necessary to efficient operation. Monopolistic power, agreements, controls, and regulations of various sorts have introduced barriers to this free working, barriers which date back far beyond the recession of 1929. Recent enactments, notably the provisions of the new industrial codes relating to costs and prices, have greatly increased the number and strength of such barriers to the free working of the price system. If the conditions of automatic co-

ordination have been substantially modified, have we substitutes for them? Have we economic knowledge, administrative instruments, and social standards adequate to the task of directing and regulating the complex processes of a modern industrial economy? One may believe strongly that conscious action was needed to break the force of deflation and to stimulate recovery but may have doubts concerning the future of a recovery movement based so directly, and in such detail, upon principles of conscious and continuing control.

How may we find a working compromise, suitable to the present day and the existing temper of the American people, between the requirements of freedom and the requirements of social control? Lacking knowledge and power to control in detail, facing the impossibility of a return to full freedom of individual initiative in all economic spheres, what intermediate procedure is possible? And if the most effective working compromise lies further in the direction of freedom than is permitted by the machinery created under the stress of the 1933 emergency, how may we find our way to it without seriously impairing the forces that have stimulated the recovery already achieved? Here, I think, is the major issue raised by a survey of the course of economic recovery during the last twelve months.

## MONEY AND FINANCE

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### ABSTRACT

Monetary policy has aimed at a redistribution of the national income. It is increasingly more difficult to distinguish monetary and economic policies. The first legislation was permissive and not mandatory. In the fall of 1933 an active policy of dollar depreciation was adopted and a large flight from the dollar helped to establish lower rates of exchange. The practical consequences of the policy were not impressive. New stress was laid upon public expenditures and the stimulation of new activity in the banks. The Gold Reserve Act of 1934 gave a permanent form to the experimentation of 1934. A "Stabilization Fund" was set up to enforce the new parity. The aim of returning to 1926 prices is open to many serious objections, partly theoretical and partly based upon recent experience. Technical ability to check an inflationary process is beyond question. Whether the technical ability will be used sufficiently early is a political problem. The incidence of a capital levy by inflation is not difficult to determine. A hit-or-miss inflationary policy may widen gaps in the price system rather than bridge them.

Monetary policy during the first year of the Roosevelt administration has deliberately aimed at a redistribution of the national income by means of reflation, that is, by such an expansion of the supply of our circulating media, relative to demand, as would be required to restore the price level of the pre-depression period. The primary object seems to be relief for debtor classes of the extra burden placed upon them by the fall of prices since 1929, and a secondary object appears to be the correction of some of our domestic marketing difficulties by exchange dumping in the world-market.

The words "inflation" and "deflation" are used loosely, even by professional students. It is, for instance, vital from the standpoint of public policy whether a "deflation" is caused by the deliberate policy of a central bank or whether it arises from other structural difficulties which exhaust the private stimulus to enterprise, lead to diminished expenditures and lower velocities of existing bank deposits. If the "deflation" is of the second variety a determined reflationary policy of a purely monetary type might actually leave the economic system with greater disparities when it has done its work.

It is increasingly more difficult to distinguish monetary and economic policies. We are far from the time when economic advisers

could set up a "gold standard" without concern for related problems such as debt payments and their relation to a creditor country's tariff policy. It is now clear to the humblest radio fan that "expenditures," whether public or private, are an essential part of a monetary program. It is evident that the new administration's crop loans to farmers, its large expenditures for public and civil works, its direct purchases of farm "surpluses," its bonus to farmers out of the processing taxes, its operations in the Federal Reserve System and with the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, as well as its silver purchases, are quite as definitely a part of its monetary policy as the suspension of gold payments in the spring of 1933, the gold purchase plan of October, 1933, or the new Gold Reserve Act of 1934.

The first legislation on the subject came in the so-called Thomas amendment to the Agricultural Relief Bill. The powers bestowed on the President were permissive, not mandatory. The President was authorized to do any one, or all, of four things:

1. To direct the treasury to enter into an agreement with the Federal Reserve System by which \$3,000,000,000 in government securities would be added to the present holdings of the Federal Reserve banks. This would be a continuation of the accepted "open market" policy of the Federal Reserve. It could also aid the government in financing budgetary deficits.

2. To issue up to \$3,000,000,000 in irredeemable U.S. notes under the Act of February 25, 1862 ("Greenbacks"). It is worth noting that the maximum amount ever issued in the Civil War episode ran to \$431,000,000.

3. To substitute bimetallism for the gold standard through the re-monetization of silver. Clarity of expression does not seem to have been the chief objective of those who framed the legislation for it also reiterates the provision of the Gold Standard Act of 1900 in which the treasury is instructed to maintain all forms of currency at parity with the standard gold unit. The latter would indicate an intention to maintain a straight gold standard.

4. To reduce the gold content of the dollar by as much as 50 per cent.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> For a more detailed consideration of these powers, cf. Leo Pasvolsky, *Current Monetary Issues* (Brookings Institution, 1933), pp. 46-55.

A joint resolution of Congress, approved by the President on June 5, announced that the fulfilment of all existing gold-clause contracts was "against public policy," and declared that such contracts might be discharged by payment in any form of legal tender.

The immediate result of these measures was a rapid depreciation of the dollar in the foreign exchange market. For some time only the "open market" powers were used, thus adding to existing bank reserves and providing these private institutions with the basis for a much larger credit expansion. The banks, however, were already provided with ample "idle" reserves and a factor explaining their idleness seemed to be a general lack of confidence in the stability of prices and in the underlying monetary policy. The policy of the N.R.A.—increasing costs of production in many cases—did not ease the situation in this respect. It became more and more apparent that under the circumstances the initial expenditures would have to come from the public treasury. Hence the later emphasis on public and civil works, farm loans, and similar measures.

Meanwhile a capital flight from the United States to other countries, as well as postponed transfer into dollars of American collections abroad, led to continuous depreciation of the monetary unit. Obviously, however, these were temporary factors. The value of a currency that is not anchored to gold is ultimately set in the open market by the total of the payments that have to be made in such a medium of exchange. Basically our balance of payments continued to be strong, and the growing deposits abroad constituted a potential "threat" to any lower parity that the administration might seek to establish.

In the fall the usual additional demand for dollars to pay for the crop movements, added to the potential forces already in the market, slowly drove the dollar upward in terms of gold. The spring revival in this country—due in part to stocking in advance of the application of the new N.R.A. codes—had passed its peak in July. The adjusted index of industrial production had gone from 60 in March through 100 (1923-25 average) in July to 91 in August, 84 in September, and 77 in October. Prices had slumped again and discontent in the Middle West was prominently displayed in eastern newspapers.

In July, President Roosevelt had defined his monetary policy in

his message to the World Economic Conference as primarily concerned with the restoration of prices to a level at which industry, *above all* agriculture, could function profitably. It was then also stated that the value of the dollar in terms of foreign currencies was not and could not be "our immediate concern." We did not deliberately depress the exchange rate for the dollar—except perhaps by psychological methods—but we had followed a passive policy. Now the emphasis was to change. Prominent inflationists ascribed the post-July slump to the absence of an active monetary policy, and when the dollar finally rose to over 71 per cent of its gold value, the President suddenly announced a new gold policy in his radio message of October 22, 1933.

The restoration of commodity prices was again stated to be the definite policy of the administration. The dollar was described as "altogether too greatly influenced by the accidents of international trade," and as a means of taking the gold value of the currency into its own hands a government market for gold was established "at prices to be determined from time to time after consultation with the Secretary of the Treasury and the President." It was apparently expected that the gold price fixed by the government would force the foreign exchange rate into line, but only a very rough degree of success was achieved, largely because of the stimulation of capital flight that ensued. The Reconstruction Finance Corporation announced on October 25 that it would purchase domestic gold at \$31.36 per ounce, which was \$0.27 higher than the London price. The R.F.C. also entered the world-market, although apparently only in very small transactions. The rate gradually increased; on December 1 the price was established at \$34.01, and on December 17 it went to \$34.06.

The theory of the administration experiment was never explicitly stated. We know the personal views of some of the men associated with the project.<sup>2</sup> It was apparently assumed that the gold-standard currencies derive their value from the price of gold as a commodity. It is also urged that the lower price for dollar exchange stimulates our exports and reduces our imports. Critics of the program stress the

<sup>2</sup> Cf. George F. Warren, "Is Our Gold Standard Too Rigid?" *Forum and Century*, April, 1933. Also the literature of the *Committee for the Nation*.



fact that over 90 per cent of our media of exchange are bank deposits and that their volume and turnover are only indirectly related to the price of gold. They also urge that economic nationalism has reduced our foreign trade to such small proportions that it cannot be counted upon to effect a major price change unless a very considerable period of time elapses.<sup>3</sup> There is little doubt that the policy increases the price Americans pay for their imports, and this can have some effect upon our price level. In the past we have not regarded higher prices for our imports as a national gain. In the end such a program means that we give more of our goods in return for less of the foreigner's goods. It is also anticipated that foreign countries will retaliate with special trade barriers against the exports of a country that seeks to promote its trade by currency depreciation.

Whatever the theoretical basis of the policy might have been, the practical consequences were not impressive. By the end of the year prices were at the low level of October. An exhaustive research report of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, which was primarily concerned with a comparison of the course of prices of especially sensitive primary materials in domestic and in foreign markets, concludes with the statement that it may be doubted "whether the program for devaluing the dollar actually has had any immediate effect on the prices of these sensitive commodities."<sup>4</sup> At the best, the gold policy appeared to be a long-run policy, and immediate effects upon prices—assuming that they were desirable—could only be expected from increased expenditures either by the Government or by private business.

The January budget message of the President made the "priming the pump" policy stand out prominently. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1934, the ordinary costs of the Federal Government, including the usual provision for amortization, will amount to \$3,534,000,000. Emergency expenditures are estimated at \$6,357,000,000. A supplementary \$1,166,000,000 for relief brings the total expenditures to \$11,057,000,000.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Charles O. Hardy, *Devaluation of the Dollar*, Public Policy Pamphlet No. 8, University of Chicago Press, 1933.

<sup>4</sup> M. T. Copeland, *International Raw Commodity Prices and the Devaluation of the Dollar*, Business Research Studies, No. 3 (January, 1934), Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration.

Offsetting these expenditures we find taxation and other revenues to the amount of \$3,260,000,000, leaving an aggregate deficit of \$7,797,000,000. The sum of \$488,000,000 is allocated to debt amortization, and the net increase in debt will therefore run to \$7,309,000,000. Of this sum, \$6,000,000,000 will be spent during the first six months of 1934. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1935, more optimistic figures are presented. It is estimated that emergency expenditures will be limited to \$2,723,000,000 while revenues are expected to increase to \$3,975,000,000. Ordinary expenditures are estimated at \$3,763,000,000, which would leave the net deficit, including the sinking fund, at \$2,512,000,000. By 1936 a balanced budget is expected.

Much of the emergency expenditure will be "recoverable" under favorable circumstances. R.F.C. purchases of preferred stocks in banks, many R.F.C. loans, and some of the public works expenditures are in this category. The R.F.C. has not been an "easy" lender. Of the loans issued from the date of its organization in February, 1932, to December 31, 1933, 37 per cent had been repaid on the second date. On the other hand, almost all of it might be a complete loss if another breakdown should occur.

*Public* expenditures will therefore reach impressive totals in the immediate future. The stimulation of *private* expenditures through the increase of volume and velocity of bank deposits is a different matter. While our banking difficulties are, of course, in the main structural and not personal, bankers are at present the victims of a group prejudice that leads to pronounced conservatism. Speculative lending in the past has contributed to the present impasse. While the stigma of the bad losses of the past is still upon them, new questionable lending is urged. At the same time new standards of liquidity are demanded as entrance requirements in the new deposit insurance scheme. Under the circumstances expansion is difficult to develop without engaging the government in new contingent liabilities. Projects for the complete control of private credit are entertained and may be necessary to protect the present commitments of public credit.

Meanwhile the Gold Reserve Act of 1934 had been passed by Congress, becoming effective on the last day of January. It con-

tained few startling innovations and gave a more permanent form to the bold experimentation of the preceding year. It committed the country to stabilization on a gold basis within a range of 50 to 60 cents of the former gold dollar. Out of the profits made by the treasury as a result of the revaluation of the available gold reserves a "stabilization fund" was set up "to deal in gold and foreign exchange and such other instruments of credit and securities as he [the Secretary of the Treasury] may deem necessary" to stabilize the exchange value of the dollar (sec. 10a). The fund apparently may also be used to prepare and maintain a market for the bond issues which the government will float in the near future.

This legislation definitely undervalues the dollar, and a drain of gold from other countries allowing shipments to the United States may be expected if prices do not increase very rapidly in this country. If this should result in a suspension of gold payments in other gold standard countries, it may destroy the psychological basis of inflationary sentiment and cause a competitive currency depreciation. If we stave off the gold shipments by central bank agreements and the acquisition of large supplies of foreign exchange, the risk of losing much of this investment by subsequent devaluation of foreign currencies or ultimate transfer difficulties is very real. It may also be doubted whether the fund is large enough to handle the problem in view of the large sums that will seek transfer into dollars if a revival of some proportion sets in. The fund seems sufficiently large, however, to absorb offers of foreign exchange for some time to come, and the immediate effect of gold shipments to this country will probably also have an inflationary effect irrespective of the ultimate intensification of the present maldistribution of gold.

All things considered, an upward movement seems likely in the near future which may reveal itself in the volume of production rather than in prices. It will be more directly related to expenditures than to the gold policy, although the latter will give the movement far greater leeway once expenditures have contributed the usual upward spiral of deposits and their velocities. If present measures do not suffice, the possibility of additional silver legislation remains.

It is usually urged that the 1929 (or 1926) price level should be the objective. There is evidence, however, that technological improve-

ments had made the level of profits too high for stability at that time and that the effort to maintain the price level of that period was in part responsible for much of the bad lending and investment that took place. Technological improvements have continued since then and it is well to remember that a rapid surge upward of prices would give us a 1929 price level with 1934 wages, which would give an entirely different distribution of income than was the case in 1929.

Many of our difficulties are due to differential rigidities in prices. Some of these gaps might be bridged by increasing prices, some disparities might actually increase. A hit-or-miss inflationary movement might leave us with greater gaps in the price system than we had before. No monetary program can remedy the blunders of misdirection of enterprise due to the World War, excessive trade barriers, or technical change.

The experience of the last four years has once again made it clear that it is far easier to make monetary policy effective as an instrument for the control of price movements when the objective is to break a movement upward than when the aim is to initiate a movement in that direction. The most effective method of controlling activity by monetary manipulation is to prevent booms, avoiding overinvestment and overproduction. At present, however, we are promoting a boom with all instruments at our disposal.

There is little doubt as to our *technical* ability to check the process. The price of control, however, might well be another collapse, particularly if purely monetary factors are stressed. Whether the *technical* ability will be used is a question of a *political* character. Experience with the warnings of the Federal Reserve Board in 1928 and later is none too encouraging. It is not only a question of political courage, but also a matter of legitimate doubt as to the neglect of the time factor in inflation by an impatient democracy. Historic examples of inflation illustrate the deceptive slowness of the early stages of an inflationary (or deflationary) process. Momentum only appears in a later period when control has to be disastrously abrupt to be effective. In other words, "control" must be exercised when the disagreeable consequences of the expansion are not yet visible to the political eye. This time lag is the heart of the political problem of control.

The quality of argument behind the present monetary policy is comparable to that used by small and determined vested interests in behalf of protection. Just as the tariff advocate approaches his problem from the producer's angle and ignores the vital consumer's interest, so the inflationist propaganda presents the debtors as weak producers—such as farmers—who are engaged in a desperate struggle with strong creditor interests. Evans Clark's *The Internal Debts of the United States* gives a total for long-time debts of 126.8 billions. Farmers' mortgages are only 8.5 billions, almost equal to the real estate mortgages of New York City. The largest single class of debtors are our corporations (railroad, public utility, and industrial), which accounted for \$36,000,000,000. In other words, the debtors are not merely the weak but include some of our strongest corporate interests. The creditors, on the other hand, include millions of depositors in savings banks and holders of insurance policies.

It is quite easy to determine abstractly where the incidence of a capital levy by inflation will be. The historic illustrations in Germany and France bear out the theoretical considerations. Inflation in these countries was not voluntary, of course, and our currency depreciation will not necessarily be as serious as it was in these cases. The extreme cases merely illustrate the consequences more clearly, however, and in a milder case they would tend in the same direction. The salaried classes, skilled labor, small business men, and investors were the chief losers in the enterprise. It is not surprising that many German students should associate the rise of national socialism as a middle-class political reaction with inflation and the threat of its recurrence.

In England, where such matters are discussed with more frankness and insight, tariffs and monetary depreciation were quite deliberately discussed as alternative methods of reducing wages when the resistance of organized labor made a direct approach less promising. With us the problem is often presented as redistribution of income<sup>5</sup> but the classes that are to be the beneficiaries and victims of the financial operation are seldom specified, although the social and eco-

<sup>5</sup> Senator Thomas in his speech on the inflation measure of April, 1933, described it as intended to "transfer from one class to another class in these United States values to the extent of almost \$200,000,000,000."

conomic composition of such inflationist groups as the "Committee for the Nation" is a clear indication of the trend.

These are serious considerations. It might be argued that the various structural difficulties that exist are a condition and not a theory. Differential rigidities in wages and prices can only be adjusted directly by a time-absorbing and painfully detailed approach. Many of them are at present out of the reach of public authority, whereas they can be adjusted indirectly via the medium of exchange.

It might even be admitted that many of our present difficulties are due to intervention with the open market rather than to laissez-faire itself. Rigid wage agreements, shares of income based on fixed indebtedness of various forms, farm board price manipulation, monopolistic price practices, and tariff policies are vital elements in the problem. They all represent efforts on the part of separate groups to guarantee their "security" in an open-market system. Tactically, however, it might be impossible within the essential time limits to make a direct attack upon the problem presented by these differential rigidities, and under the circumstances it might be argued that only a thorough and complete control of all factors involved—including the key function of bank credit—could hope to undo the harm done in the past by unrelated and often contradictory piecemeal planning for security by or for isolated groups. The peril of the chosen method lies in the serious possibility that it might widen gaps in the price system rather than bridge them.

## THE RECOVERY LAW

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### ABSTRACT

Although political parties often come into power in America by virtue of some unsolved but pressing problem, the instances have been few in which the situation was so desperate as that with which Mr. Roosevelt was confronted upon his inauguration. The Recovery Act was popularly regarded as his central thrust against the forces of depression. Among the proponents of this law, however, were many who saw in it the possibility of achieving desired ends, as well as some who saw it as a recovery act. Title I of the law here dealt with establishes a means by which business can set up for itself—through industries—codes of fair competition having the effect of law. Business initiates the process, which is then aided by the Administrator with the advice of a series of boards. The code-making process which has been carried on with relentless energy has been almost obscured in the public mind by the more showy activities exercised in the Blue Eagle Drive. The latter was necessary, in the mind of the Administration, as a means of universalizing quickly certain minimum requirements of wages and hours. The most pressing current problem is the construction of machinery for administering the codes and adjusting disputes arising under them. Experience thus far leaves uncertain the ultimate effects of the law and its administration upon both economic and political organizations.

When one party is swept out of power in America and another swept into its place by a large majority, it is usually on the basis of a widespread feeling that a critical problem confronts the nation and that that problem is not being adequately met by those in power. In few cases, however, has the problem been as basic or as threatening as that of lifting a nation from deep depression—the task with which Mr. Roosevelt was confronted upon his inauguration March 4, 1933.

While to some observers the attack seemed replete with contradictions, it was made with a promptness and a vigor which commanded the country's immediate respect and enthusiasm and which awakened at once an optimism which the nation had not felt since the fact of the depression had first impressed itself upon the general consciousness.

Of all the pieces of legislation hurried through a submissive, if not a willing, Congress during the spring and early summer of 1933, the National Industrial Recovery Act was that to which the public in general at that period looked most directly for recovery. The farm legislation in its agricultural provisions, even though certain of its

proponents advocated business expansion, was generally regarded as aid and succor to a class. The implications of monetary and fiscal policies were too complicated for popular analysis; and although widely interpreted as efforts to get prices up as a means of promoting recovery, were quite as generally looked upon as a means of relief to debtors. The Recovery Act was in its very denomination a national recovery measure. It was popularly accepted as the central drive against the forces of recession.

By no means all of the proponents of the Recovery Act, however, conceived of it as solely related to recovery. Even the briefest inquiry into the interests, attitudes, and influences which lay behind the law makes it clear that different groups saw in it different possibilities. One group clearly did comprehend it as a recovery measure. They conceived of it as a scheme for putting "a bottom under prices" and thereby creating a situation in which fear of further decline would be eliminated and from which it would, therefore, be reasonable for an enterprise to go forward. A second group saw in this legislation the possibility of relief to unemployment through a spreading of work. The thinking of this group was closely tied to the concept of technological unemployment and the notion that there was "not enough work to go around" on the basis of a working day of the conventional length. A third group, the leaders of the trade association movement, still remembering the impetus which their organizations had received by the collective action of the war and whose efforts toward trust-law modification and self-government in business had been of little avail, saw in the proposed law an opportunity both for the curtailment of the anti-trust laws and for greatly increased opportunities in regulating so-called unfair competition by business self-government. Still another group saw in the law the opportunity for a resuscitation of trade unionism and for its further development under a greater degree of governmental protection than had heretofore been available. It is this variety of interest in its passage as well as what has been done in its administration that makes it possible to view the Act as a piece of social legislation, as a relief law, as a magna charta for industrial self-government in business—not merely as a recovery measure.



## ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF THE LAW

The Act, as passed, is made up of three parts. The first is concerned with industrial recovery, the second with public works, and the third with certain "amendments to Emergency Relief and Construction Act and miscellaneous provisions." It is only with the first section of the law, industrial recovery, that the paragraphs which follow will be concerned.

It is declared to be the policy of Congress in enacting the law to remove obstructions to the freedom of interstate commerce (an effort, undoubtedly, to lay a constitutional base), to promote organization of industry, to induce and maintain unified action of labor and management under governmental supervision, to eliminate unfair competitive practices, to promote the fullest possible utilization of present productive capacity in industries, to avoid undue restriction of production, to increase the consumption of agricultural products, to reduce and relieve unemployment, to improve standards of labor, and otherwise to rehabilitate industry and conserve natural resources. To effectuate these ends the President is given a wide range of powers. The law contains two phrases, the apparent contradiction between which will not be resolved until courts pass upon the matter. One is the provision that codes shall not permit monopolies or monopolistic practices; the other is that any code, agreement, or license approved or issued under this title and any action complying with this provision shall be exempt from the provisions of the anti-trust laws of the United States, during the effective period of the Act.

The most significant content of the law is the permission which it grants to "trade or industrial associations or groups" to place before the President for approval codes of fair competition for their respective industries. Such codes when approved by the President, upon his finding them meeting certain requirements, are declared to have the effect of law. The President is also authorized to make such exceptions to and exemptions from the provisions of codes as he deems necessary. Also, if he finds in an industry for which no code has been approved that there exist abuses inimical to public interest and contrary to the policy of the Act he may impose a code. If trade groups fail in presenting codes, the President may formulate them, and after public hearings, place them in the same category as codes originated

by trade groups themselves and approved by the President. The President may, moreover, when he discovers the practice of activities which he believes are contrary to the purposes of the law, license business enterprises if he deems it necessary to make a code of fair competition effective. The President is further granted power to enter into agreements with and to approve voluntary agreements among those engaged in trade, labor organizations, and industrial groups if he believes that such action will carry on the purpose of the law. It was under this latter power that the President entered into his Re-employment Agreement, the so-called P.R.A., associated in the public mind with the Blue Eagle Drive. Under certain circumstances the President is empowered to impose a limited code of fair competition dealing only with conditions of labor.

The law contains one mandatory prescription as to what must be included in each code. This is the much-discussed Section VIIa, which declares that every code shall contain the conditions that employees shall have the right to organize and bargain collectively and shall be free from influence of employers in the designation of their representatives or other concerted activities. This clause further requires that no employee and no one seeking employment shall be required as a condition to join a company union or to refrain from joining or assisting a labor organization of his own choosing. It requires, finally, that employers shall comply with the maximum hours, rates of pay, and other conditions of employment approved or prescribed by the President. These provisions strengthen the Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932 in outlawing the so-called Yellow Dog Contract and give a general governmental sanction to certain rights of labor which were almost immediately brought into the public eye by their discussion in the framing of the automobile, steel, and coal codes.

Few, if any, peace-time activities of the United States have been carried on with such vigorous, not to say violent, energy as that with which General Johnson, who was made Administrator of the Recovery Act, undertook his work. It was obvious that if the desired effects were to be forthcoming the code-making process must go forward with great rapidity. It was believed, that to be significant in lessening the tragedies of unemployment, regulations would have to be in effect, at the latest, before cold weather arrived. To give any

industries the full benefit of higher trade standards, such standards should be as nearly universalized as possible. The President had signed the law on June 16. The experience with the proposed codes handled during the first few weeks made it evident that time was required for code negotiations and that something to supplement this complex procedure was necessary if the law was to have prompt effect and if the enthusiasm generated by improved business conditions, hope in the new legislation, and the colorful personality of the Administrator were not to be lost in tedious processing. It was presumably for such reasons that the President, on July 27, addressed "to every employer" a communication which became the basis of the President's so-called Re-employment Agreement. The chief points in the Agreement, which became known as the Blanket Code, were: the elimination of child labor; the limitation of weekly hours of labor—from 35 to 40 hours, depending on circumstances; the fixing of minimum wages—from \$12 to \$15 per week and \$0.30 to \$0.40 per hour, again depending on circumstances; an equitable upward adjustment of wages higher than the minimum; the limitation of price increases to the amount of increased costs; and an agreement to support enterprises which were also parties to the N.R.A. This Agreement was to expire as of December 31, 1933. Upon that date it was, however, "extended" to April 30, 1934.

#### CODE-MAKING AND THE BLUE EAGLE DRIVE

The President's Re-employment Agreement, coming in quickly after the work of code-making had begun, placed upon the Administrator two tasks, each a difficult one. The President's Re-employment Agreement required that as many of the industrial employers of the nation as possible be brought promptly into the plan. In the meantime the formation of codes for industrial industries had to be carried forward. The first of these tasks may be spoken of as the Blue Eagle Drive, the second as the code-making process. The first, necessarily employing the technique of showmanship and ballyhoo, attracted universal attention.

It is to be remembered that the code-making process is initiated by industry. An association begins its task by applying to the Control Division of the Administration for the particular forms and sug-

gestions as to subsequent procedure. While the Recovery Administration takes no direct responsibility for formulating the original draft of the codes, it will furnish advice as to proper form and content, if requested to do so. This procedure, simple as it may sound, is often of large practical difficulty for trade associations. The task of obtaining agreements among the competitive interests of an industry is great in many cases and varies with the number and character of the competitive units within the industry and the strength of the association which represents it. With each proposed code must be filed copies of certain supporting documents, chiefly the constitution of the trade association, a letter of transmittal discussing the condition of the industry, and evidence that the association does in fact properly represent the industry.

Each code is, upon receipt, assigned to a deputy administrator. Copies of the preliminary code, together with certain comments, are sent to agencies each of which may be viewed as advisory to the Recovery Administration. These are: Industrial Advisory Board, Consumers Advisory Board, Labor Advisory Board, Legal Division, and Research and Planning Division. The trade association is then given the opportunity to make revisions in the light of comments given it by the Deputy Administrator. A conference follows. Revisions are sent to the five advisory agencies. Further conferences of an informal character ensue. A deputy administrator, or an assistant, and a steering committee from the trade association are the chief parties, with advisory representatives from the five advisory groups. The Administration's representative occupies, as chairman of these conferences, a position of no little responsibility. He must meet conflicting interests of the industry, dispose of such differences of viewpoint as may exist among the advisory groups, and attempt to produce a code designed to stimulate recovery—and all within the limitations of the empowering act. The influence of each representative in the conference varies greatly with the knowledge of the trade and the capacity of the individuals concerned.

The next step in the code-making process is the public hearing. The Deputy, or assistant in charge of the code, presides, assisted usually by members of the advisory boards. Representatives of labor, industry, and consumers are permitted to appear by complying

with simple regulations. Hearings vary from a few hours to several days in length. Further conferences are called, these often dealing with important objections which may have been raised at the public hearing. The difficulties of adjusting disagreements at this stage may cause the discussions to continue for days or weeks. The Deputy eventually submits his report to the Recovery Administrator, accompanied by written reports from the advisory groups. The Recovery Administrator may believe further revisions are necessary. When these have been adjusted, or if he approves without further adjustment, the code is submitted to the President for approval. Upon his signing, the code-making process is completed.

In its relation to industrial control the National Industrial Recovery Act is proceeding with the establishment of what may be regarded as a new sphere of government, a government of industry by industry, or at least by mechanisms which while related to existing public agencies are in considerable measure innovations. The law itself may be regarded as providing a sort of constitution for this new government of industry by industry. It sets forth the methods by which legislation—the codes—may be made. When these codes are made it is necessary that there be an agency for carrying out their provisions. In addition to mechanisms for effecting the routine administration requirements there must be some form of executive and judicial machinery. That is, there must be a means by which violations of the code regulations shall be detected and some agency have powers to examine charges of code violation, to pass upon the facts, to make adjustment or, if necessary, to impose the penalties prescribed in the Act.<sup>1</sup>

The construction of this machinery became the most pressing problem of the N.R.A. as the new year opened. A large number of codes, some 286 as of this writing (February 16, 1934), have been approved. The Administration is fully aware that the success of the

<sup>1</sup> The problem of compliance, as the Recovery Administration usually refers to the enforcement problem, was first raised in extensive form by the President's Re-employment Agreement. To meet this problem there were established over the country a series of local compliance boards, volunteer organizations. These boards, when set up according to Administration specifications, consist of two employee representatives, two employer representatives, one chosen for representing the representative of the legal profession practicing in the community, plus a chairman selected by these members.

codes depends upon the effective application of their provisions. At this time an elaborate system for dealing with compliance is being outlined, though it seems clear that this plan will be modified in important ways as experience suggests.

In general, the plan provides that complaints of violations of trade practices will be brought to the attention of subordinate industrial agencies set up by code authorities. These will attempt to determine whether violation exists and, if so, to use persuasion to adjust the difficulty. If these efforts are ineffective, the case is passed on to a divisional or national code authority. While the emphasis is upon persuasion and mediation, even when cases go to national agencies, the Department of Justice or the Federal Trade Commission may be utilized. Either of these may set in motion action leading to severe penalties. Where properly organized code authorities are not established, cases may in the first instance be taken to public agencies—local adjustment boards and state directors of the National Emergency Council. In dealing with labor problems, the agencies mentioned are supplemented by the National Labor Board and the National Industrial Relations Board.

Whatever disagreement there may be as to the value of the N.R.A. achievement, the quantity of work done by the Recovery Administration is astounding. Not only have a vast number of industries been brought into codified arrangements, but these industries have exemplified almost every conceivable form of enterprise and have included the most powerful and independent industries of the nation. A machine for producing legislation has been set up, and at least outlines of a mechanism for the enforcement of this legislation have been created and grafted upon existing governmental enforcement and judicial agencies. The vitality of the undertaking, in spite of the continuous difficulties confronted and the tenacity with which responsible individuals in government, business, and labor have clung to the task, has been a matter of wonder—indeed of admiration. It has without doubt reflected the same spirit which was abroad when the Act was under consideration—a belief on the part of many groups that this law offered unusual opportunity for conserving or extending its interests, plus a widespread adherence to the notion that it worked in the direction of general recovery.

The Recovery Act has been put upon the statute books with the express provision that it will terminate at the end of two years. Will it within that period establish institutions which cannot be dismantled without serious results? What will be its actual effects upon the promotion or stabilization of economic activity? Will the law lead in the direction of cartellization? Will it place in the hands of industry authority which will make the traditions of economic freedom which are embodied in the Sherman Act and the Clayton law matters of a past era? Will it give labor, or at least organized labor, a voice of markedly greater authority? Will it make the agencies for settling labor disputes as formal as those for settling civil disagreements? Will it put a new emphasis on national as against international economy? Will it tend to revive the problem of state rights? No definite answer can as yet be given to any of these questions. It is indeed probable that to many of them a clear and complete answer can never be given. The N.R.A. activity is not taking place in a laboratory or under glass. It is going forward concomitantly with a series of other activities which affect it, which it affects, and together with which it is producing certain results bearing on all of the issues which have been raised.

## UNEMPLOYMENT AND RELIEF

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### ABSTRACT

In 1929 the relief in 120 cities, totaling about 35 per cent of the population, was \$43,000,000. In 1933 it was \$447,000,000. One-eighth of all the families in the United States were on relief in 1933, involving an expenditure of nearly \$800,000,000. The ineffective handling of relief has improved with time. For the future, relief should continue in close co-ordination with a broad social program to guard against the return of the sweatshop and to make adjustments with industry. Also, unemployment insurance and reserves should be built up, and security for special groups should be provided by the states; at the same time antiquated types of poor laws should be abolished.

The largest single cause of destitution at the present moment is unemployment of persons normally employed. As employment waxes or wanes, so will the major part of the relief burden. An increase in volume of employment not only removes able-bodied wage-earners from relief rolls but, by replenishing family incomes, makes possible the care of others, including indigent unemployables, by relatives and friends. In any discussion of relief problems, consequently, the trend of employment is a most important factor.

No adequate measure of the total volume of unemployment at the present time in this country is available. While employment trends do not yield information as to the volume of unemployment, they give some indication of its fluctuations. At the close of 1933 the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of employment for manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries showed significant gains over the preceding twelve months. The gains in manufacturing industries were strongest during the period March to September; during the fall months there occurred, as was to be expected from the seasonal nature of many lines of employment, some retrogression.

Efforts to increase employment, and correspondingly to reduce unemployment, are continuing unabated along many lines: reducing hours of work, increasing wage-earners' and farmers' incomes, providing direct employment on government financed projects, stimulating private industry, etc.



Increasing employment may be expected to reabsorb the wage-earning population which has been least affected by the depression—that is, those whose employability has not been impaired. With some effort at adjustment, numbers of those whose morale, or skill, or health, or general adaptability has been in part impaired during the period of want and idleness may be reabsorbed. It seems likely, however, that a considerable residue will be left.

At present our knowledge both of the extent of unemployment and the character of the host clamoring for employment is sketchy. The depression has brought home to us not only an unemployment problem of unforeseen dimensions but a realization of the large amount of unemployment and underemployment which is chronic even in normal times. The resulting destitution cannot all of it fairly be charged up against the depression; yet it must be taken into account in planning for the aftermath of the depression. It has become augmented both in extent and severity by the unemployment of the normally employed.

The overflow into the labor market of persons not formerly in search of work brings with it other complications. It will increase the keenness of competition for available jobs, and put pressure on wage-rates, hours, and working conditions. The best bid which many of the “new” wage-earners can make is cheapness, and willingness to work at any standard. Their presence strengthens the classic arguments for minimum-wage and other legislation designed to protect a fair standard of work practices. N.R.A. Code provisions constitute an important bulwark but have not eliminated the need for regulation by the states. Lacking adequate protection of fair labor standards, we may see another resurgence of sweatshop conditions and an increasing volume of work sent out into the homes. The economic necessity which drove workers to accept this type of substandard employment will not be suddenly or universally removed even by rising wage-rates and shortening of hours.

The relief problems which the country has been called upon to face since 1929 have been extraordinarily difficult to handle, both because the extent of dependence during these years surpassed all precedents and because we entered the depression unprepared to care for unemployment. Relief organizations, hurriedly created for

what was thought to be a brief period, have found it necessary to cope with a constantly increasing load.

#### PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF, 1929-33

Monthly data on expenditures for different types of public and private relief have been assembled for several years by the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor as part of its project for the registration of current social statistics. These relief reports come from 120 cities of 50,000 or more population located in all sections of the United States, and present a thought-provoking picture of what has been happening in urban areas as increasing numbers of

TABLE I

AMOUNT EXPENDED FROM PUBLIC AND FROM PRIVATE FUNDS FOR DIFFERENT TYPES OF RELIEF IN 120 CITIES AND CITY AREAS CONTAINING ABOUT 35 PER CENT OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Type of Relief	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Total .....	\$42,892,248	\$70,512,188	\$171,935,168	\$306,243,991	\$447,357,678
Public funds .....	\$32,104,152	\$52,894,081	\$122,048,975	\$249,776,134	\$419,005,033
Direct relief .....	\$14,356,037	\$30,902,026	\$ 65,566,929	\$156,699,764	\$274,210,811
Work relief .....	4,784	1,741,621	23,023,439	51,880,076	104,916,826
Special allowances:					
Mothers' aid .....	16,485,447	17,586,725	21,320,393	23,523,147	22,493,070
Old-age relief .....	8,889	1,080,867	10,315,384	15,584,159	15,221,753
Aid for the blind .....	1,248,995	1,582,842	1,822,920	2,088,088	2,252,573
Private funds .....	10,788,096	17,618,107	49,886,193	56,467,857	28,352,645
Direct relief .....	\$10,764,107	\$15,450,637	\$ 35,299,439	\$ 42,250,710	\$ 21,201,677
Work relief .....	23,989	2,167,470	14,586,754	14,217,147	7,150,968

the unemployed have been forced to depend upon public and private relief for necessary food, clothing, and shelter.

In 1929, as is shown in Table I, relief expenditures in these 120 cities totaled about \$43,000,000. Although the rising volume of unemployment during the closing months of the year brought increased demands for relief, the amount expended represents primarily the normal requirement in these cities for relief to persons in want for other reasons than unemployment.

About half of the amount expended for public relief in these cities in 1929 was made in accordance with the provisions of state laws authorizing aid to mothers for the care of their children at home following the death or continued disability of the father. A

considerable proportion was used also for aid to the blind. Old-age relief—optional as yet in all states—formed a negligible part of the relief expenditure.

Between 1929 and 1933 expenditures for mothers' aid increased about one-third. The establishment of mandatory systems of old-age relief in several states and the further development of optional systems brought the 1933 expenditures for such assistance in the reporting areas to about the amount being expended for mothers' aid in 1929. Aid for the blind required an expenditure nearly twice as large in 1933 as in 1929.

The increased expenditure for these three types of public assistance is small as compared with the rise in public expenditures for relief related primarily to the care of the unemployed. In 1933 approximately \$400,000,000 was expended in the reporting cities for direct and work relief, largely from public funds. The 1929 expenditure was only about \$25,000,000, with nearly 40 per cent financed from private funds.

#### PUBLIC RELIEF, 1933

Prior to 1933 no figures are available on a nation-wide basis with reference to the number aided through unemployment relief and the volume of the total relief expenditure from public funds. At the beginning of the year, according to data compiled by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, approximately 3,850,000 families were being aided through direct or work relief financed from public funds. By March the number had increased to 4,560,000. The rise during the spring and summer months in the number of persons employed, as shown by the various indexes of employment, was reflected in the decreasing number reported on the relief rolls. The number was reduced also by special projects organized to provide useful employment in place of relief—the Civilian Conservation Corps established last spring and the recently organized program for extensive employment in all sections of the United States under the Federal Civil Works Administration.

At the close of 1933, however, the report of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration showed 2,625,000 families still being aided by relief from public funds. The average monthly number of families

aided in 1933 was about 3,650,000, or approximately one-eighth of the total number of families in the United States. As these figures do not include persons receiving assistance under state laws authorizing the use of public funds for mothers' aid, old-age relief, and aid for the blind, they underestimate the size of the public relief problem. They also do not include families aided through private relief, indigent adults in almshouses and other institutions, dependent and neglected children in institutions and foster-homes. In certain states, families aided by poor-relief officials for other reasons than because of unemployment are also not included.

The reports of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration show that \$790,766,385 was expended from federal, state, and local public funds in 1933 for direct and work relief to families. Of this amount \$479,115,221 came from federal funds, as compared with \$112,614,673 in 1932. Until May, 1933, grants from federal funds were made in accordance with the provision of the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932. Since then, they have been made through the Federal Emergency Relief Administration under the provision of the Emergency Relief Act of 1933. Large amounts have been expended also from federal funds for the establishment and maintenance of civilian conservation camps, the purchases of the Federal Surplus Relief Corporation, the pay-roll of the various civil works projects, and other parts of the National Recovery Program directly related to the relief of the unemployed.

#### RELIEF PROCEDURES

Although the adequacy of relief procedures has improved greatly in 1933, few who have been in touch with the way in which the unemployed have been assisted during recent years will favor a return to similar methods of care in future periods of depression.

During the early days of the present depression the relief-giving agencies were overwhelmed with the magnitude and unfamiliar character of their relief load. The staffs of these agencies, instead of being concerned mainly with problems connected with the care of the unemployable, were suddenly asked to assist thousands of men and women, formerly regularly employed and self-supporting, who were without work through no fault of their own and who requested

relief only as a last resort. Relief offices were crowded with applicants waiting long hours for the interview required to establish need for assistance. The process of relief-giving was slow, and the amount provided inadequate. Cash relief was rare, and for months on end families lived on grocery orders—usually of limited content—with infrequent supplementary supplies of fuel and clothing. The family relief budget in most localities made no provision for the payment of rent. The shortage of local funds prior to the availability of federal funds in 1932 caused periodic stoppage of relief grants in many areas, thus creating acute suffering among the unemployed.

Just at the time when it was important to maintain purchasing power in order to arrest depression in the beginning, inadequacy and instability of the local relief machinery made impossible the continuation of family expenditures other than those necessary for the maintenance of a subsistence level of existence.

It is inconceivable that public opinion would permit in future periods of depression a repetition of the ineffective handling which characterized much of the unemployment relief in the earlier years of this depression. It is also inconceivable that persons unable to secure immediate employment should be thrown back on the type of poor-relief previously available.

#### NEXT STEPS

Experience gained in recent years indicates certain steps that are of basic importance in lessening the personal hardships and the community burdens of unemployment and relief.

First, relief should be continued in close co-ordination with the various programs under way for securing increased opportunities for employment under satisfactory working conditions and at fair rates of pay. Irregular and inadequate relief sends into the labor market workers who will accept, because of their dire necessity, any job that is open. As a means of protecting the country against a resurgence of sweatshop conditions, as well as because of the need for continued care of the unemployed, it is essential that we have for some time to come national co-operation in maintaining local relief units equipped and financed to provide necessary assistance on a self-respecting basis to the indigent unemployed.

Second, in the future we should make quite different provisions for unemployment and relief. Especially important are the following:

*Unemployment reserves and insurance.*—The early establishment of some form of unemployment reserves or insurance in the various states should be stimulated so that a systematic, honorable method will be available to tide over a slump period for those who want work and lack it. Industry builds up reserves for payment of dividends during lean years, and it should be expected to provide supplemental compensation to be paid to workers out of jobs through no fault of their own. At the present time Wisconsin is the only state having an unemployment reserve law. The industrial workers of this country should not be left dependent solely upon public or private relief during future periods of depression but should be protected by some form of unemployment insurance or reserves which will make possible the payment of benefits well above the level of mere subsistence, and extending over substantial periods of time. If such a system can be established covering all sections of the country, much of the heart-breaking suffering during recent years of the inadequately aided unemployed will be prevented in future periods of depression, and relief agencies will be left free to concentrate upon their special responsibilities for services not related primarily to the care of the unemployed.

*Security for special groups.*—There is also need for the further development of specialized types of public assistance for certain groups now on the relief rolls and likely to remain there indefinitely. The state laws authorizing mothers' aid, old-age relief, and aid for the blind were enacted to give security to those in need of care over a long period. Eligibility for such special assistance is established by law. Payment is usually in cash, and the beneficiary can look forward with confidence to receiving it as long as he remains eligible.

The advantages of this system in caring for persons in need of relief during considerable periods of time are obvious. State laws authorizing mothers' aid have been enacted in nearly all states; but many local areas, especially in rural sections, have not appropriated funds for their operation. Interest in old-age security legislation has

increased rapidly during recent years, but effort is necessary to secure its enactment and its adequate financing in all states.

Studies of cases on relief rolls nearly always show a considerable proportion who are in need of temporary or continued assistance because of illness. Adequate systems of workmen's compensation, including compensation for occupational diseases, will keep certain of these cases from the rolls. Others should probably be handled through the development of more adequate community services for the care of the sick. •

*New type of public assistance to replace former method of poor relief administered under the poor laws.*—Abolishing the antiquated types of poor laws which still control the giving of public relief in most sections of the country is also needed. Many of the provisions of these laws have come to us from the poor laws enacted in England during the time of Queen Elizabeth. They bear little relationship to present-day thinking about the causes of poverty and are in frequent conflict with procedures now recognized as desirable in relief administration.

A new conception of public assistance to those in need is emerging from the experience of recent years and should find expression in new laws and new administrative procedures for the care of persons who from time to time and for various reasons require temporary or continued aid.

## LABOR

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### ABSTRACT

The National Recovery Act was significant in guaranteeing to labor the right to organize and bargain collectively, in recognizing labor, when organized and represented, as a co-partner with management, and in recognizing the need for a planned economy. After the passage of the Act labor organizations showed a marked increase in membership. The "company union" movement, initiated to counteract the unionizing tendency, will undoubtedly decline. The codes have shown little uniformity in the matter of working hours and wage rates. Governmental interference in industrial management has thus far been a minimum but is certain to increase. Between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000 persons have been added to industry during the year, and the total income to labor has advanced by some \$240,000,000 a month. Solution of the unemployment problem seems to demand a drastic shortening of hours. The increase in hourly earnings and the decrease in hours worked just about balance each other. The real wages of workers who had already had jobs has slightly decreased. Industrial disputes increased sharply toward the middle of 1933 but remained far below the figures for 1927 and 1928.

The year 1933 has been an epoch-making one for American labor. The National Industrial Recovery Act, as approved by President Roosevelt on June 16, 1933, opened up immediately hitherto undreamed-of vistas to industrial workers in general and the organized labor movement in particular. Summarily stated, these were, as follows: (1) guarantee to wage earners of the unrestricted right to organize and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing; (2) recognition of labor, when organized and represented, as a co-partner with management in determining labor conditions and relations and in evolving general stabilizing policies for industry; (3) recognition of the need for a planned economy under which the length of the work-day and mass-consuming power would be fundamental factors.

These principles of procedure and guarantees are contained in Sections 1, 2(a), and 7 of Title I, and Section 206 of Title II of the Recovery Act.

### GROWTH IN LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

Liberty to organize without molestation brought the dawn of a new day to the organized labor movement. The officers of the United Mine Workers of America, who had been working zealously for the



enactment of the Recovery Act, anticipated its passage by launching a vigorous organizing campaign in every coal-producing area in the country. As the result, they made greater gains in membership than any labor union in the country. The number of organized mine workers was practically made all-inclusive of the industry, rising above the half-million mark. Agreements were also concluded with operators in every important coal-mining area.

The next greatest gains were in the clothing industries in which trade-union membership is reported to have advanced to at least 150,000.

In addition to the activities of its constituent unions, the American Federation of Labor concentrated its efforts at organization upon the basic, mass-production industries such as steel, automobiles, textiles, oil, rubber, etc. On August 1, 1933, before the effect of the Recovery Act could be registered, the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor reported a total membership of 2,126,796. On October 2, following the opening of the Annual Convention in Washington, President William Green reported an increase in membership since August 31 of 1,800,000, making a total formal enrolment in the American Federation of Labor, as of October 1, 1933, of 3,926,796. President Green estimated that if the records were complete to October 1, the Federation would show a membership of at least 4,000,000 and the entire organized labor movement more than 5,000,000. The new recruits to the American Federation of Labor, according to principal forms of organization, were reported as follows:

In new federal unions.....	300,000
In old federal unions.....	50,000
In new locals of international unions.....	500,000
Recruits in old international union locals...	450,000

The growing importance of trade unions also led the unions themselves to a more serious consideration than had ever been given to questions affecting their organization, structure, and principles. The problem, for instance, of the craft versus the industrial union type of organization immediately developed a new importance, and, while this and other problems have by no means been solved, the raising and debating of such vital issues is promising for the future. Also

promising for the future has been the discussion of various measures for the purpose of avoiding friction and duplication of union activities. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, after many years as an independent union, affiliated itself with the American Federation of Labor, and the possible amalgamation of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen reached the point of serious discussion.

#### THE "COMPANY UNION" MOVEMENT

The tremendous strides made by the unions after the Recovery Act aroused the apprehensions of the conservative, anti-union industries. As a consequence, movements of much greater vigor and intensity than those of the labor organizations, to counteract unionizing tendencies by the formation of so-called "company unions" or employee representation plans, were started. In November, 1933, the National Industrial Conference Board published a study of forms of collective bargaining under the National Recovery Administration based on questionnaires sent to 10,335 companies with 2,586,000 employes in manufacturing and mining with a capitalization of one-half million dollars or more, and from the returns secured drew the conclusion that only 10 per cent of the employees covered worked on trade-union agreements, while 45 per cent were under individual bargaining and the same proportion under employee representation plans. These restricted returns also showed a relatively faster growth in membership of company unions than of labor unions.

These returns, however, related, in the main, to small establishments, where the old management-capitalist system still obtains, and cannot be considered as representative of general tendencies. The company union movement, however, has actually been very aggressively pushed in manufacturing, mining, and transportation since the passage of the Recovery Act, and now includes, according to the most disinterested estimates, approximately 3,000,000 industrial workers. It will undoubtedly decline rather than increase, for the following reasons: (1) Certain forms of collective-bargaining organizations have flourished because of the failure until recently of the Recovery Administration or the National Labor Board to make clear-cut pronouncements as to the eligibility of such organizations

as a basis for employee elections under the National Recovery Administration. (2) The National Labor Board has voluntarily restricted its jurisdiction to mediation or to cases jointly submitted by the parties in interest, and has not, as was originally expected, rendered interpretative decisions on ex-parte complaints.

This unfortunate situation has been primarily due to necessarily hasty, emergency organization, and to the fact that Chairman Wagner was in Europe when he was appointed Chairman of the Labor Board and was not actively in office during the formative stages of the Recovery Administration, when the judicial and administrative divisions and functions of the Recovery Administration, because of intense pressure, could not be clearly defined and segregated. He has now introduced legislation in Congress for the purpose of clarifying the resultant confusion.

#### LABOR PROVISIONS OF THE CODES UNDER THE NATIONAL RECOVERY ADMINISTRATION

The policy of the National Recovery Administration at its beginning was restricted to two points: (1) a moderate reduction in existing weekly hours of work, and (2) an increase in the minimum rates paid to those lowest in the occupational scale of the industry concerned. General wage scales were not considered. No proportionate increase in rates of those above the minimum was permitted. These rates, as well as other labor provisions, were left to mutual agreement or to compromise. As each code, therefore, was the result of bargaining, those thus far approved by the Recovery Administration (approximately 250 in number) have shown little uniformity. In the matter of working hours, the 40-hour week has been most frequent, but there have been many variations, one code going as low as 27 hours and one as high as 56 hours per week. Also, there have been many exceptions allowed for special classes of employees, such as learners and apprentices.

In the matter of wage rates, the minimum scales were set, in most cases, from 30 to 40 cents per hour for the productive workers proper, and from \$12.00 to \$16.00 per week for office workers. In one code, however (the ice industry) the minimum was as low as 23 cents per hour, while in the petroleum code the minimum was 52 cents per hour in certain areas. These variations were justified by the code

framers on the ground of "local" conditions and conditions "peculiar" to the industry. Undoubtedly, however, many of these variations resulted simply from differences in the bargaining power of the parties concerned and were not based on any particular principles.

The codes agreed, in general, only as to two points. The first was the guarantee of the right of collective bargaining, on the part of labor, through representatives of their own choosing; but this clause was merely a repetition of Section 7(b) of the National Recovery Act itself. The other point of agreement was in regard to elimination of child labor. The first code adopted, that for cotton textile manufacturing, established sixteen years as the minimum age of employment, and subsequent codes included a similar provision, except that the age limit was raised to seventeen or eighteen years in some of the most hazardous employments.

#### THE FUTURE OF LABOR UNDER THE NATIONAL RECOVERY ADMINISTRATION

In appraising the National Recovery Administration from a labor standpoint, it should be borne in mind that the original intent of the Industrial Recovery Act was to reduce eventually all industry, including natural resource industries, to the status of public utilities. Immediately after the passage of the Act, the prospect of this outcome was pointed out by conservative commentators to industries which, because of price and market instability as well as their own deflated financial condition, were hastening to formulate codes of fair competition. They were warned that although they might immediately stabilize their operations and restore profits, they should not expect in the future the large earnings of former years; that production and price control would follow; and that surplus earnings above a fair return would be absorbed by shorter hours and higher rates of compensation to wage earners and other workers. But industry, as a whole, through financial necessity, disregarded these considerations.

From the standpoint of those, however, who looked forward to quick and positive action as to public control of industry and the development of a planned economy by the National Recovery Administration in which organized labor would have a prominent place, the results attained thus far have been disappointing. Although noteworthy economic and social gains have been made through shorter

hours, greater re-employment and larger pay-rolls, as well as through the elimination of child labor and the sweat shop, main emphasis has been placed on self-government by industrial management with as small a degree of governmental interference as possible. Large and powerful industrial and financial interests and agencies, such as the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, have publicly sanctioned such a procedure and have urged it as a permanent program.

Perhaps it may have been wiser to have restricted, as has been done, the initial stages of this great undertaking to the mobilization of industry into codes under a stable price procedure and reasonable re-employment with as little friction as possible. It is now entering upon its second stage of development, however, and it is inevitable that this should be one of accelerated, constructive recovery under a planned and positive public procedure and control.

Of all the agencies of the "New Deal" the Recovery Administration is the most important so far as economic recovery and economic reform are concerned. The powers conferred by the Act contemplate economic planning, production and price control, the emancipation of labor, and the development of its status to that of a co-partner with management in industry. There can be no real economic recovery unless these powers are exercised, for the reason, as is generally agreed, that re-employment and industrial stability are dependent on shorter hours, reductions in profit, and a redistribution of industrial output so that mass purchasing power may be sufficient to absorb the output of our mass production industries.

It is certain that these powers will eventually be exercised, and action toward these ultimate objectives will soon be accelerated. This will not arise primarily from arbitrary policies as to the socialization of industry but will inevitably flow from the different elements of self-interest which are involved, such as the need of price and production stabilization and control by the industrialist and of a greater measure of economic freedom and welfare by labor. As a consequence, under the National Recovery Administration, we may expect a growing acceptance of labor as a co-partner by management and a constant improvement in working and living standards of employees. Significant movements in this direction which are now under way, are: (1) The necessity for the National Recovery Adminis-

tration to adopt a maximum work-week of 30 or 32 hours to absorb workers now under the Civil Works Administration. (2) Granting to labor of representation on code authorities by the National Recovery Administration. (3) Recent recognition and acceptance of national, regional, and local labor-union agreements by the National Recovery Administration in formulating codes of fair competition as determining hours of work, wage and other standards of employment, so far as the scope of the agreements extend. (4) The evident determination of the National Recovery Administration to evolve some form of agency in all codes by which joint-planning boards, composed of an equal number of representatives of industry and organized labor, will be established. A precedent has already been established in this connection in the Construction Code. (5) Clarification of the standard labor-union and company-union issue, and of the scope of collective bargaining, as well as a pronouncement as to the powers and jurisdiction of the National Labor Board in the form of a bill proposed by Senator Wagner, which is now pending in the Senate.

Other stimulating measures may be added to the program of the National Recovery Administration also as the result of a general conference of all code authorities which has been called for March 5, 1934.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT

It is a great misfortune that, in a country so statistically minded as ours, there should be no satisfactory data regarding the number of persons currently unemployed. The latest official survey was that of the United States Bureau of Census in 1930. For the vitally important period since that time there have been no official reports or estimates, and we have had to depend on estimates made by private organizations and necessarily based on rather unsatisfactory sources. The American Federation of Labor attempts such estimates monthly, and while not pretending to anything like complete accuracy, these have been generally accepted as the best available.

The graphs published by the Research Department of the American Federation of Labor afford a vivid portrayal of the unemployment situations during 1933 and preceding years. Chart I, which is taken from the *Monthly Survey of Business* for February, 1934, shows

the increase of unemployment from the summer of 1930 to March, 1933, when the number out of work was 13,689,000. From March to October, 1933, more than 3,500,000 had secured employment, and in the latter month the number out of work had been reduced to 10,122,000. In November and December, 1933, however, 600,000 lost their jobs and the unemployment figure at the end of the year was 10,752,000. In December, 1933, the emergency agencies of the federal government—Emergency Public Works, Civil Works Administration, and conservation camps—gave employment to more than

CHART I

## UNEMPLOYMENT

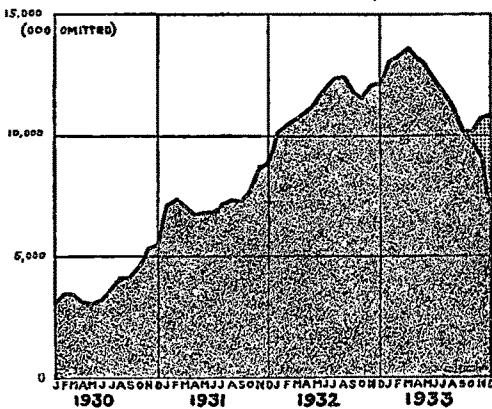
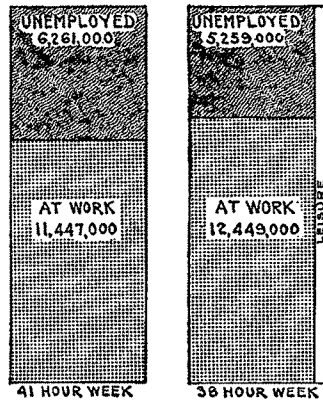


CHART II

## PRE-NRA

## UNDER CODES



The Work Week

4,000,000, but there were "still about 6,700,000 who did not even have this temporary work."

In Chart I the light, dotted section shows those temporarily employed by federal emergency agencies at the end of 1933.

Chart II, which is taken from the same source, covers 103 industries "which normally employ 51 per cent of all non-agricultural wage and small-salaried workers, and shows the effect of shortening of hours by the National Recovery Administration on reemployment."

According to the explanation given by the American Federation of Labor,

each diagram represents the number of man-hours' work needed per week (469,320,000 man-hours) when these industries were operating at December,

1933, levels; and each accounts for 17,700,000 workers or all employed in these industries and 51 per cent of all unemployed non-farm workers.

In December, the work week in these industries averaged 38 hours; this compares with a 41-hour average week before N.R.A. (first 7 months 1933). Shortening the work week 3 hours in these industries has created jobs for 1,000,000, but left 5,259,000 still unemployed.

On the basis of this comparison, it would require a  $26\frac{1}{2}$ -hour week to provide re-employment for all of those out of work. A thirty-hour week would leave 2,064,000 still unemployed.

#### THE UNEMPLOYMENT PROBLEM AT THE END OF THE YEAR

The end of 1933 found the government still facing a very serious unemployment problem. The Public Works Administration had been slow in getting under way, and, even after the allocation of its funds was completed, it was confronted with unusually cold weather which made the starting of projects in many localities impossible. Inertia of local and state officials also delayed others. At the close of the year the best opinion was that the public works program would have no especially stimulating effect on employment before late in the spring of 1934.

Provision was made, therefore, for appropriations to carry the 4,000,000 unemployed under the Civil Works Administration until May 1, 1934. At that time, the public works program may be able to absorb a considerable portion of these. Even if these hopes are realized, however, there would still be from five to seven million unemployed. In anticipation of this the conclusion seems inevitable that the problem will have to be met by a drastic shortening of hours under the National Recovery Administration.

#### PAY-ROLLS AND EMPLOYMENT

Early in 1933 employment and pay-roll totals reached levels so low as to be almost unbelievable. Thus in March, 1933, the index of manufacturing employment, compiled by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, dropped to 55.1 (on a 1926 basis which is very close to the 1929 level) and pay-roll index to 33.4. In other words, the total number of persons employed in all manufacturing establishments, including the many on short-time work, was only a little more than one-half what it had been in 1926, and the total



amount disbursed in wages was only one-third the pre-depression figure. After March, and more particularly after the passage of the National Recovery Administration legislation, conditions began to improve, and continued to improve, despite certain recessions toward the end of the year. In December, 1933, for instance, manufacturing employment was 27 per cent higher than in March and 20 per cent higher than in the preceding December, while pay-roll totals were 49 per cent higher than in March, 1933, and 32 per cent higher than in December, 1932.

In most of the other industries, for which similar data are compiled by the government, similar improvements occurred, the net result being that at the end of the year some 1,500,000-2,000,000 persons had been added to productive industry, and the income of all workers in industry had been increased by some \$240,000,000 per month.

#### HOURS AND EARNINGS

It must be borne in mind, however, that this increase in pay-roll totals was due to the added number of persons on the pay-roll and not to increases in the average weekly or monthly income of those who already had jobs.

In all fifteen major industrial groups which report to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, there was a decrease in weekly hours and in all but three there was an increase in hourly earnings. For all groups combined, weekly hours decreased during the year from 41.5 to 37.7 and average hourly earnings increased from 45.8 to 51.2 cents. This meant, however, for the average worker an increase in weekly earnings of only 30 cents—that is, from \$19.00 in December, 1932, to \$19.30 in December, 1933. In other words, the increase in hourly earnings and the decrease in hours worked just about balanced each other.

#### REAL WAGES

Furthermore, viewed from the standpoint of purchasing power, the weekly pay envelope of the workers who already had jobs was actually smaller at the end than at the beginning of the year, for while their weekly earnings remained about stationary, the cost of living increased 2 to 3 per cent during the year, and 7 per cent from January to December, 1933. Thus, the direct financial gains to labor

as a whole seem to have been solely in the increase in the number of persons having jobs. Indirectly, however, there were important gains. The events of 1933 stopped the decline in wage rates and placed certain minimum standards as a bottom level, when before there had been no bottom. In the second place, legal and public sanction was given to the theory of the short working period.

#### UNION WAGE SCALES

In view of the serious membership losses of the trade unions prior to the middle of 1933, it is rather striking that the union wage scales were so well maintained. According to the surveys of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, made as of May of each year, the average hourly rate for the trades covered was \$1.20 in 1929, \$1.11 in 1932, and \$1.06 in 1933, a decline between 1929 and 1933 of less than 12 per cent. Undoubtedly, some labor-union members in the past four years may have disregarded the established rates because of their need for work, but there is no reason to believe that such a practice has been at all common, and in certain trades, as printing, is probably entirely non-existent.

#### INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Industrial disputes increased sharply toward the middle of 1933. Prior to that time there had been comparatively few important strikes since 1928. In 1927 and 1928 the number of man-days lost in industrial disputes, as reported by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, exceeded 30 million. In 1929, this number dropped to about 10 million and continued well below that number to 1933, when the total was about 13½ million, which number, it should be noted, was still far below the figures for 1927 and 1928. The 1933 disputes were mostly strikes growing out of the claim of the workers that employers were refusing to recognize bona fide labor organizations as provided in the National Recovery Act.

## AGRICULTURE AND RURAL LIFE

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### ABSTRACT

The Agricultural Adjustment Act sought (1) to restore the purchasing power of agriculture to its pre-war level, (2) through readjustment and refinancing of farm mortgages to bring relief to debtors, (3) to readjust the currency and raise price levels. At the close of the year the purchasing power of the farmer's dollar showed some total gain—59 as against 50 at the opening. A definite beginning was made to return to the farmer a larger share of the consumer's dollar. Gross farm income increased. The tax burden was eased somewhat. Three aspects to agriculture's problem have been faced—the loss of foreign markets, the necessity of raising the price of farm products more rapidly than other prices, and the problem of what to do with land held out of agricultural use. From the social side the year has been filled with problems of adjusting the throngs of people moving from the city. Schools and churches have suffered through diminishing resources. Standards of living have markedly dropped. Rural community organizations are turning increasingly to home-talent activities. A new chapter in rural relief history is being written. In the realm of social thought a real struggle of ideas and ideals is apparent.

The year 1933 seems to have begun on March 4. Agriculture dates its New Deal year from March 16 when the President called upon Congress to include relief for agriculture in its emergency legislation.

Perhaps the best way to bring the year into quick review is to follow through some of the main provisions and problems of the Agricultural Adjustment Act, the AAA, as it is popularly known, and then to observe some of the more social movements of the period.

*Provisions of the Agricultural Adjustment Act.*—First, and of paramount importance, the Secretary of Agriculture is ordered by the Act to restore the purchasing power of agriculture to its pre-war level. The years 1910–14 are the norm, the goal sought. This restoration is to be no child's play and not merely an attempt “to do all possible to improve the situation,” but rather a definite instruction. To accomplish it the secretary is given very unusual powers. He may control farm production. The products specifically included in the provisions of the Act are cotton, wheat, rice, tobacco, sugar, corn, hogs, and dairy products. There is plenty of flexibility, however, for he may decide at any time which of the basic commodities should be controlled and what methods should be used. In this way he can

keep up with weather changes or with fluctuations of the consumers' demands.

The power to control production may be exercised in various ways. The Administration may enter into contracts with individual farmers to reduce acreages or amounts produced. Rentals may be paid for land thus kept out of use, or there may be direct payment of benefits. The purpose is always to re-establish the farmer's ability to exchange what he has to sell for what he has to buy at the ratio he enjoyed in the five-year period, 1909-14. The funds with which to make such payments shall be raised by a tax levied at the first point of processing, and each commodity fund has to be accounted for separately.

The Administration may likewise enter into trade or marketing agreements with groups of producers, purchasers, or processors and stipulate the prices at which the products are to be moved, and this with entire immunity from the operations of the anti-trust laws. Processors or purchasers may be licensed so that such agreements may be enforced or processing taxes be collected. Such agreements have been undertaken with varying degrees of success in some of the larger city milk sheds and in the tobacco business.

In the case of cotton a very ingenious plan was devised. Beside the much criticized method of plowing down about 25 per cent of the cotton crop as it was reaching maturity, the Administration said that the cotton grower might say, as one sometimes does in jest in flipping a coin, "heads I win, tails you lose." The grower who reduced his acreage by 30 per cent was offered an optional contract for an equal amount of cotton owned by the government. Thus, he was really in control of the usual amount of his crop, but the total actually grown was reduced. If the market price rose above the price agreed in the option, the grower was privileged to sell, but if the market price remained below the option price, he need not sell. He could gain, but he couldn't lose. He might even borrow up to six cents per pound on the cotton which he had not produced but which was held for him by the government. Needless to say, much borrowing was done.

The second provision of the Farm Act is for the readjustment and the refinancing of farm mortgages, an effort to bring relief to debtors

burdened by obligations assumed in times of high-priced farm products. A credit administration was set up combining and centralizing all the credit agencies of the government for dealing with farmers. The refinancing of two billion dollars worth of mortgages was authorized. This represented roughly about 25 per cent of the outstanding farm mortgages. The plan is made effective by the government issuing tax-exempt bonds in exchange for the mortgages and guaranteeing the interest but not the principal. Interest rates on mortgages held by the federal land banks were reduced to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Provisions were made for new mortgage loans, for production loans, and for waiving principal payments for a time in order to forestall or at least reduce foreclosures. There has been much activity and much relief given in this phase of the adjustment program, though its operation was too much delayed to help a great many who were in desperate need.

The third provision is for the readjustment of the currency. This time the President, not the Secretary of Agriculture, is given the power to manage the currency and to regulate the price levels. The promise to agriculture of a measure of inflation is in accord with the whole aim of the Act, namely, to re-establish the farmer's buying power. Experimenting with the currency and the relative price levels leads directly into the whole complicated area of rural-urban interests and conflicts. The President, therefore, finds himself in the very middle of the national struggle.

*Some results.*—But what of the results? They cannot possibly be essayed, for the time has been too brief. (The Act did not finally become a law until May 12, 1933.) There can be no question, however, but that agriculture and rural life are in the midst of a great reorganization or readjustment. The period of initiation or setting up of the various machineries and agencies is well advanced. The onset of the experiment itself is here.

An index of the changing buying power is the ratio of the prices received by the farmer to the prices he paid as recorded by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture. The story for the year is told in Table I.

It does not require a great deal of imagination to sense something of the farmer's plight as the year opened. Receiving 51 cents for

products which returned him \$1.00 before the war, and paying \$1.04 for merchandise which he formerly purchased at \$1.00, could mean only one thing—trouble. As one discerning New York newspaper man remarked, "the farmers are eating their houses, their barns and their fences." Reserves had all been exhausted before, so there was nothing left to do but to live off the operating and living plant, cut down the standards of living, and "dig in" on a self-sustaining basis.

By April the curve started to move upward. Psychological factors of hope and confidence were probably quite as important as was any

TABLE I

INDEX OF FARMERS' PURCHASING POWER, 1933  
(Average prices, August, 1909, to July, 1914, represented by 100)

Year 1933 by Months	Prices Received by Farmers for Commodities Sold	Prices Paid by Farmers for Com- modities Purchased	Ratio of Prices Received to Prices Paid
January.....	51	102	50
February.....	49	101	49
March.....	50	100	50
April.....	53	101	52
May.....	62	102	61
June.....	64	103	62
July.....	76	107	71
August.....	72	112	64
September.....	70	116	60
October.....	70	116	60
November.....	71	117	61
December.....	68	116	59

change in the real economic situation. The peak for the year came in July, with the index standing at 71, thus bringing the parity back to where it was in 1930. To what extent direct control and to what extent temporary factors such as drought and weather conditions figured in the rise, is too difficult to determine. In any case, it was too high, for the decline soon set in again and the year closed at 59.

The evidence seems to indicate that there was some total gain during the year. The Consumers' Council of the AAA insists that a definite beginning was made in 1933 toward returning to the farmer a larger share of the consumer's dollar. In 1932 the farmer received only 33 cents of this consumer dollar while in 1933 his share increased

to 35 cents. Reports by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics give a similar conclusion of small gain. Gross farm income was estimated at \$6,360,000,000 in 1933, as compared with \$5,143,000,000 in 1932. This amount included over \$300,000,000 received from the government in forms of rentals or benefit payments. Much of the balance of the gain in income was credited to better prices for field crops, since the prices for most kinds of livestock, animal, and dairy products continued at low levels throughout the year. It is significant to find that the total field crops increased 42 per cent in total value over 1932 while the volume of production of the ten principal items declined 18 per cent. The cotton story was different because the crop of 1933 was slightly larger than that of 1932 and this despite the fact that ten million acres were taken out of production by the adjustment program. The total value increased over \$250,000,000, however.

The last of the basic commodities mentioned in the Act to receive major attention is dairy products. The secretary says, "it's about the toughest problem we have." Various sorties have been made, but the central program seems still to be announced. The federal Emergency Relief Administration bought and distributed to its relief lists. The market was sustained by the buying of a newly created Dairy Marketing Corporation. Its activities did indicate how sensitive butter prices, for example, are to consumer purchasing power. The power granted by the Act to enter into trade or market agreements and to fix prices was also employed. The secretary lays the delay in this department of the program squarely at the door of the organized dairy interests.

Estimates of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics also give some assurance that the tax burden on farm real estate was somewhat eased during 1933. Falling real estate values, higher levies, shrinking net farm incomes practically doubled farm taxation in relation to income between 1929 and 1932. So the relief in tax burden during the past year, associated with whatever increase there was in farm income, is indeed real farm relief.

It should also be recorded in passing that a notable advance was made in the effort to keep farm land in family ownership during the emergency. This took the form of a decision of the United States

Supreme Court on the Minnesota Mortgage Moratorium Law (Home Building and Loan Association, Appellant *vs.* John H. Blaisdell and Rosella Blaisdell, his wife, rendered January 8, 1934). The issue at stake was whether the state might use its public welfare powers in an emergency situation in order to save debtors from mortgage foreclosures, postpone executive sales, and extend periods of redemption without going counter to national constitutional provisions respecting impairment of contracts and due process.

*Three aspects of agriculture's problem.*—From the side of agriculture, then, there are at least three facets or aspects to the problem. The loss of foreign markets is the first, and its consequences fell particularly heavily on the farmer. He had extended his production plant both extensively—using more land—and intensively—using more machines and more science. He did not desist when those markets were gone. He worked even more feverishly, willing to produce as much and more, for even half the price, in order somehow to keep going, for where would he go if he should leave the farm? Those who tried the fortunes of the city were coming back disillusioned. Even with lower price levels consumption did not expand to take up the surpluses. The law for regulating supply and demand through the mechanism of price seemed to be in suspension. The Secretary of Agriculture faced this first aspect of the problem very frankly as he summed up the situation in his first annual report. He said that personally he favored a plan and policy of international co-operation, tariff revisions, trade agreements or debt readjustments, that friendly export markets might be regained. The general march toward nationalism in which this country joined in July, however, made it necessary for the Agricultural Administration to face the second aspect of the problem—a domestic economy through controlled production.

The secretary warned emphatically that such a nationalism policy would mean more severe regulation and regimentation of both industry and agriculture than this country had known. He insisted that from the standpoint of agriculture the only method which would avail is to raise prices of farm products more rapidly than other prices. Increasing the general level, through inflation or otherwise, would not suffice, though, to be sure, taxes and interest could be



met more easily thereby. The fact that it is not an easy road to travel is becoming evident. Critics are getting bolder. They say that attempting to induce prosperity through scarcity is not sound, economically or ethically, nor is it even possible. Although many farmers have signed and are signing their contracts of curtailment, there are those who question whether the tradition to grow and to cultivate can be turned back. What motive can be substituted? Surely, from the individual farm standpoint, it cannot be considered efficient management to have land within the farm lie idle.

Mention of land brings the third aspect of the problem to view. What shall be done with the forty or fifty million acres of land held out of agricultural use? The future need for land when taking into account the changing of crops, the increasing of population, and the shifting of acres cultivated is still a question of debate. Furthermore, much land has come back to counties in certain regions through tax delinquencies. In fact, a new public domain has been created, so that some sort of public planning and policy is imperative. Apparently such a policy is in the process of formation. The Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, writing under the title *The Planned Use of Land*, suggests that the old hope of benefiting society as a whole through private ownership and control has not been realized; therefore, natural resources will best be utilized for the benefit of all if deliberate study is given to the needs of society and then land uses adjusted to those needs. A national planning board with representatives in various regions of the country is attempting to work out this ideal.

*Rural life: the social side.*—From the side of rural life or the more social relationships there are also at least three phases with their attendant problems which should be passed in brief review. This is not to suggest that the social and the human are not deeply enmeshed in all the conditions which have thus far been presented. They most certainly are. Movements of people, local social institutions, and theories of social control are the three social phases to be considered.

*Population movements.*—There have been two main population movements characteristic of rural society—the westward movement of pioneer days and the cityward movement of urbanizing, rambling days. The latter reached its proportions of millions during the

twenty-five years prior to 1930 until there was fear in some quarters of rural depletion. Since then the movement has been checked and reversed so that all losses have been regained and more, because the Department of Agriculture estimated that on January 1, 1933, farm population had reached its highest mark in the nation's history, 32,242,000. With the collapse of urban industrial life, people again sought refuge in the country. State studies within the year indicate that those areas which lost most in the cityward quest have gained most in the countryward trek. The year has been filled with problems of adjusting this throng of people into rural life and its social institutions.

And then the subsistence homesteads executive order came along calling for a "redistribution of the overbalance of population in industrial centers by means of making loans for and otherwise aiding in the purchase of subsistence homesteads" and carrying an initial grant of \$25,000,000 for its execution. One cannot help but wish for a practical definition of "overbalance" and of "subsistence."

This movement might easily become one of the most significant and far-reaching in the great experiment. Conjecture tends to oscillate between two poles of possibility. On the one side, "mere subsistence" is the very thing rural people have been trying to surmount. If more millions of "over-aged" and jaded people are to come to the country to eke out a subsistence, then the whole of rural life will be leveled, all the gains lost, for how can a "subsistence" family live neighbor to a "high-standard" family and have the whole community and its institutions sustained? On the other side, *if* agriculture's buying power can be regained, only its good land be zoned into use, the standards of living of its families be restored, and *if* industry can be decentralized, its workers made happy with long leisure hours in the great out-of-doors—but one feels the dream of Utopia coming on.

*Rural social institutions.*—Changes and problems of rural social institutions and agencies is a second phase of the more social situation. Inasmuch as such institutions are distributed over a rather far-flung front, all one can do is to view certain features of a few of them with somewhat staccato paragraphs. Let the schools and churches come first.

A recent research bulletin of the National Education Association summarizes current trends in *rural education* in the following cryptic terms: "responsibilities increased; resources decreased; services reduced; irregularities continued." To substantiate the summary, the following facts are presented: Nearly 2,000 rural schools failed to open in the fall of 1933, due to lack of funds. Eighteen thousand rural schools are operating for less than six months. Seven hundred of these are operating less than three months. The number of rural teachers receiving wages less than the amount provided in the President's "blanket-code" is 210,000. Of this number 84,000 rural teachers are receiving less than \$450 per year. It is estimated that about one million children were being denied part or all of their educational opportunities during 1932 and 1933.

Concerning *churches*, the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches estimates that contributions to Protestant churches declined 40 per cent between the years 1929 and 1932. Evidence is sufficient to indicate, although studies have not been completed, that the decline continued during the year 1933. It is further affirmed that the rate of decline was more rapid in rural than in urban communities. The question was raised whether periods of restricted resources meant increasing co-operation among churches in rural areas. This department answers in the negative, pointing out that small churches are able to get ministers for a pittance and that administrators feel duty-bound to place as many of their unemployed as possible. Therefore, the emergency period does not seem to promise relief for one of the problems of rural churches. Rural activities of the Catholic churches are being continued with vigor. The Rural Life Bureau of the National Catholic Welfare Conference has been issuing circulars throughout the year. An annual conference was held in Milwaukee and steps were taken to set up rural-life-bureaus with directors in all of the dioceses. Twenty-eight have already been appointed.

*Rural standards of living* have changed markedly as indicated by studies of farm families in two Wisconsin counties visited in 1930 and revisited in 1933. The cost of purchased goods and services dropped 28 per cent for the one county and 14 per cent for the other. Clothing outlays dropped 36 per cent and 27 per cent. Health ex-

penditures were reduced 34 per cent for one county and 37 per cent for the other. Advancement expenditures primarily for books, magazines, and education showed a decrease of 30 per cent and 16 per cent. A compensating factor for curtailment of "purchased" family living was the increase of "furnished" family living, including food, fuel, and housing. This increased 8 per cent and 10 per cent. But the whole story is not told by the tabulated figures. Some farmers couldn't be starved out with a cellar filled with a six months' food supply. They could keep and feed their families as long as they could hold their farms. The people in town could do nothing about their predicament except to go to the city for support.

Just as farm families are turning to home- and neighbor-grown foods, so *rural community organizations* are turning to home-talent activities. In one state over 6,000 country people participated during the year in various forms of organized activities: dramatics, musical productions, and public discussion. At least 3,500 young men or boys took part in rural recreation programs which finally terminated with 36 county teams playing off a kittenball tournament at the state fair. The director of agricultural extension service in that state put his estimate upon this type of rural life-activity as follows: "Farm people have shown a greater capacity to provide their own entertainment than any other group. Cut off by economic conditions from commercialized entertainment, often sordid or unenlightening, rural people have proved their capacity to enrich their own leisure hours by music and song and plays and games of an elevating order. The countryside has not only proved that it can provide its own entertainment, but also that it can elevate the character of it."

A new chapter in *rural relief* history is being written. This started with the passage of the Federal Emergency Relief Act, May, 1933, authorizing an administrator, appointed by the president, to make grants to the several states "to aid in meeting the costs of furnishing relief and work relief and in relieving hardships and suffering caused by unemployment." Fortunately for rural life, employment was interpreted broadly by the administrator. Farmers who were destitute from forced sales and foreclosure were regarded among the unemployed, entitled to clothing, health facilities, and other necessities

from the public relief agencies. Limited figures from special studies indicate that rural families were not an exception in the relief program. One set of these figures representing 166 typical agricultural counties scattered according to rural population density throughout the country and having no large cities, show 1 in 10 families in these counties on public relief in July, 1933. This proportion fell to 1 in 11 in September, 1933, but the amount of relief received per family increased from \$8 in July to \$10 in September. In early autumn when the nation was confronted with great surpluses which jobless families could not buy, public relief agencies, overburdened with appeals, saw the possibility of using these surpluses. They took steps to remove from the "backs of farm prices the deadening burden of piled-up unsold products." The Federal Surplus Relief Corporation, a non-profit concern officered by the Administrator of Relief and the secretaries of Agriculture and the Interior, was organized to devise a two-way relief program, namely, to help farmers by buying up food surpluses and to help destitute families by seeing that they got them. The Corporation which got under way in October distributed approximately \$50,000,000 worth of produce to needy families during a three months' period. Pork, butter and cheese, grains, and beef were included.

*Social thought movements.*—"Planning" implies a theory of social control, a theory of society itself. This is the third and last phase of the social situation to be considered. No one with any social sensitivity could live through the year which is under review and not recognize that perhaps the most important movement of all was in the realm of ideology, social theory, attitudes, objectives, values, or, if you will, political and social philosophy. Questions of final destination cannot be measured now, but a movement of social thought is on.

Thoughts can move only on the wheels of words, so it may be justifiable to wrest a few words completely from their settings and even from their authors in order to sense something of this social movement.

First, let the leaders speak:

It can be prosperity socially controlled for the common good. It can be a prosperity built on spiritual and social values rather than on special privilege and special power.

Enduring social transformation such as the New Deal seeks is impossible of realization without changed human hearts. The classical economists, most orthodox scientists and the majority of practical business men question whether human nature can be changed. I think it can be changed because it has been changed many times in the past.

Of course, our hope lies in the fact that the great bulk of laboring men, farmers and business men are neither bitter nor rapacious.

It must furnish the spiritually hungry people with something which is truer and more compelling than the "dog-eat-dog" philosophy of the classical economists and the biological scientists.

Business men operating as individuals on the animal plane can destroy us no matter how great our scientific discoveries.

A planned economy can get nowhere unless backed by social discipline. In some countries there is a kind of social discipline in existence but it is imposed from above. We are a democracy and we propose to remain a democracy.

A healthy change in the attitude of the American people might follow the discovery that there is enough to go around. The old driving obsession for more and more land, for more and more possessions and bigger profits might seem foolish once we learned how to distribute our abundance.

I'm wondering if one change might not be a lessening of the emphasis on intensive commercial farming and a heightening of the emphasis on farming as a way of living as well as a way of making a living.

I am inclined to think the motive power for such a change in attitude may have to come from something more profound than economic forces. It has happened before in history and it is quite likely to happen again.

There can be no doubt that there is a real struggle of ideas and ideals. Critics and opponents stood rather dry-mouthed at first but more recently words have started to flow. They say:

Industrial planning on a wide scale is not only intolerable but impracticable.

The thin edge of government control has already driven too far.

In my opinion economic interests will prove stronger than the political. A form of governmental organization may easily evolve which will be intolerant of opposition, have inherent need of obedience, and, in the belief that his welfare demands it, will submerge the individual.

Observers of American social and political institutions have noted in the last few months an unparalleled transfer of democratic rights and privileges to the executive arm of the government.

To me it is incredible that in a world of tragically unfilled human needs, statesmanship must now set out upon the quixotic attempt to increase wealth by destroying property or declining to create it.

The domestic allotment type of legislation, reduced to its essence, is an attempt to solve the agricultural problem by inducing a modified famine on the installment plan.       •

As I see it, we are entering upon a new federalism.

The Revolution, then, is "young robust collectivism," waging a battle against the "hard-fisted pioneering."

To social scientists such surgings of a social thought movement should be a heyday. It is a time when "all good men should rally to the aid of their country," not as sharp, unsympathetic partisans of this or that segment of the movement, but as friendly and understanding students of an organic society. So to do will require more rather than less systematic study, timely thinking, and resourceful research. Some of those social concepts—tools for understanding—which have been all too much neglected, need a vast amount of practical and scientific improvement—"culture," "attitude," "opinion," "progress," "process," "control."

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## EDUCATION

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### ABSTRACT

Schools and colleges are seriously affected by the depression. A number of types of federal relief have been provided which have to some extent improved the situation. In certain communities constructive measures have been adopted to advise and instruct unemployed adults. The proposal is made that secondary and higher education be largely or wholly supported by tuitions. Schools have a marked increase in attendance as a result of the operation of the industrial codes. The increase may be made permanent through an amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The regional standardizing associations are preparing to adopt new kinds of standards. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is absorbed into the United States Office of Education.

During the year 1933 the schools and colleges of the United States felt the full impact of the depression. Expenditures for education had been somewhat reduced in earlier years, but, in general, the financial stringency was slow in affecting schools because appropriations for education had been more or less stabilized and were not withdrawn in any large measure during the years immediately following the collapse. If federal relief funds had not been made available for the support of various kinds of educational activity during 1933, the situation would have been far more serious than it was.

*The deepening crisis in education.*—The United States Office of Education, to which the state superintendents of public instruction reported the conditions in the various states, published in the late autumn a leaflet entitled *The Deepening Crisis in Education*. Among the significant statements in this leaflet are the following.

Here are some casualties of the crisis in education:

One hundred thousand more children are this year denied all educational opportunities because of closing schools.

Shortened school terms will put at least a million other children on learning rations close to the level of mental starvation.

One of every two cities has been compelled to drop some important school service.

One of every three teachers must work this year for less than the "blanket code" minimum for unskilled labor.

Twenty-five thousand teachers have been dropped, while a million more pupils have come into the schools.

Two hundred thousand certificated teachers are unemployed.



Two hundred and fifty-nine school districts in twenty-nine states have been compelled to default on bonds.

The number of pupils per teacher is being increased—in five states there are on the average more than forty pupils per teacher.<sup>1</sup>

*Federal relief measures.*—During the month of August, 1933, a number of college presidents assembled in Washington and prepared a proposal patterned somewhat after the plan adopted by the federal administration for the relief of unemployed young men through the Civilian Conservation Corps. The proposal was that qualified young people who desire to attend college but are financially unable to do so be allowed a stipend equal to that paid to men in the conservation camps. The proposal was presented to the President. The administration responded favorably to this proposal and other proposals relating to education which were urged on its attention. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration made appropriations from time to time for the following purposes: (1) Employment of unemployed teachers to keep open rural schools which would otherwise be closed for lack of funds. (2) Employment of unemployed teachers to conduct classes in cities for persons who are illiterate. (3) Maintenance of nursery schools. (4) Instruction of unemployed adults in vocational courses, instruction of adults requiring rehabilitation training, and instruction of unemployed adults in such general subjects as economics, history, and science. The purpose of general instruction is to maintain and improve morale among the unemployed. (5) Partial support in college of 100,000 young people who for financial reasons would otherwise be unable to attend. (6) Instruction by trained teachers of the men in conservation camps.

To this list of direct relief contributions to education may be added the fact that funds were made available under the Civil Works Administration for the employment of many persons who were unemployed but competent to do clerical work or work requiring training of a superior grade. Many university centers have been able under these grants of relief aid to give employment to persons who have higher degrees but were without positions.

*The New York City adjustment service.*—Local relief agencies have

<sup>1</sup> *The Deepening Crisis in Education* (United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 44, 1933), p. 3.

in some cases contributed to educational projects. One example which is worthy of special mention is a project in New York City in which the Carnegie Corporation is co-operating with the city relief commission.

The history of this enterprise is as follows: The branch of the Y.M.C.A. located in the neighborhood of Wall Street became aware early in the depression of the fact that none of the ordinary forms of public relief reach the clerical and professional workers who are out of employment. While the directors of this branch of the Y.M.C.A. knew that they were not able to find employment for men, they felt sure that sympathetic counseling would help in the formulation of plans for personal adjustment. The Y.M.C.A. established a division which undertook to direct unemployed clerks, architects, civil engineers, and other trained men to opportunities for study which might in time lead to new occupations. It prepared and made available lists of places of wholesome recreation where men could spend their time in ways which would help them to escape the kind of despondency that comes from having an oversupply of enforced leisure.

The work of the Y.M.C.A. was so successful in helping unemployed men trained for technical services that it seemed desirable to expand the range of its application. A vacant floor in the building of the National City Bank at Madison Avenue and Forty-second Street was furnished by the bank at a nominal rental; office equipment was provided by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company; and the "Adjustment Service" was organized to carry on a program of individual counseling with regard to vocations, education, and recreation. The Adjustment Service is a counseling agency, not an employment bureau. It has a library in which information is available on all kinds of opportunities for education and recreation. It has a staff specially trained in personnel work. It has a psychiatric division which is competent to make examinations and give help to anyone who is in need of its services.

This counseling agency is working in close co-operation with the State Department of Education and with the other agencies which are conducting adult education in New York City.

*The Des Moines forums.*—An experiment in adult education undertaken with a view both to allaying the restlessness which has been

caused by the depression and to preparing people for intelligent participation in public affairs has been inaugurated by the school system of Des Moines, Iowa. With the aid of a grant made by the Carnegie Corporation, public forums are conducted in school buildings. Trained lecturers present discussions of social, political, or economic topics, and members of the audiences ask questions after the lectures. The forums have proved to be successful in drawing large audiences and in creating enthusiasm for study of problems of social life.

*Tuitions proposed for secondary and higher education.*—An attack on popular education was launched by that well-known advocate of educational retrenchment, Henry S. Pritchett, sometime president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. In the annual report of the Foundation, Mr. Pritchett advocated the following changes in American education.

It is not to be expected that all the state governments or all the educational experts will agree upon the reforms to be effected. But there ought to be a fair agreement as to the direction this adjustment of tax-supported education to the intellectual needs and the financial resources of the states ought to take. Some of the signposts that mark this course would seem to be the following:

1. The courses of study should be fewer and simpler, and should look toward the training of the habits of the mind rather than the furnishing of information. In other words character and the ability to think are the real aims of the elementary school. It should be a free school, but the purchase of books by the state should cease. The American people are being made soft by this sort of coddling.

2. The secondary school should carry a tuition fee as it does in Europe, and the standard of admission should be such as to exclude the manifestly unfit. How large a part of the expense of the secondary school should fall on the state is a matter for state decision.

In the secondary schools, as in the grade schools, the need for a simpler curriculum is pressing. Today the secondary schools will be found to offer, in one state or another, the most amazing mass of studies, literary, scientific, and vocational. Everything from philosophy to journalism can be studied, in name at least, in the secondary schools in our country. A more simple, sincere, and consequently a less expensive régime, supported partly by the state and partly by tuition, should take the place of that which now obtains.

3. University education as provided out of the public funds of the various states has already begun to throw an increasing amount of the expense upon those receiving instruction. The proportion of this cost, to be borne by public funds, will vary. Arizona, for example, cannot afford to support at public expense such an elaborate institution of higher education as Ohio or Illinois. In

proportion to its resources it supports today an extraordinary institution of learning. In the main it must be recognized in the future that tuitions in a tax-supported university must carry the greater part, if not the whole cost of professional education. There was a day when the state might have been justified in training teachers, lawyers, physicians, and engineers at public cost. That day has gone by.<sup>2</sup>

*Increases in school enrolments.*—The retrenchments which were made in educational budgets during the year 1933 came at a time when the demands on schools were greatly increased. A part of this increase resulted from the fact that many high-school graduates who could not secure employment returned to the schools from which they had been graduated and asked for the opportunity to continue their studies. A part of the increase resulted from the operation of the new industrial codes, which very generally exclude from employment young people under sixteen years of age. The following summary of the provisions of the codes with respect to the employment of children is quoted from the editorial pages of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Of the first fifty-eight industrial codes to be approved, all but three prohibit the employment of children under sixteen years of age under any circumstances. The code governing the bituminous coal-mining industry prohibits the employment of minors under seventeen years of age either underground or in hazardous occupations aboveground but omits the clause prohibiting the employment of persons under sixteen under any circumstances. The code relating to theaters permits the use of child actors for special parts. The retail-trades code is the only one yet approved which permits part-time work of children between fourteen and sixteen years of age. Under the terms of this code children between fourteen and sixteen may be employed either three hours a day for six days a week or eight hours a day for one day a week. In either case the hours of employment must be between 7 A.M. and 7 P.M. and must be such as not to interfere with the child's opportunity to attend the regular day school. The builders' code prescribes eighteen as the minimum age of all employment, and a number of codes carry an eighteen-year age minimum for hazardous operations.<sup>3</sup>

*The proposed child-labor amendment to the Constitution.*—The increased school attendance resulting from the provisions in the industrial codes relating to the employment of children promises to be

<sup>2</sup> Henry S. Pritchett, "The Deflation of Public Education," *Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*, pp. 47-48.

<sup>3</sup> "Child Labor under the Recovery Program," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIV (December, 1933), 251.

made permanent by the adoption of a child-labor amendment to the Constitution of the United States. In 1924 Congress passed a resolution submitting such an amendment to the states. The Supreme Court had decided that without such an amendment Congress cannot pass legislation limiting child labor. The amendment has not up to this time been accepted by a sufficient number of states to make it a part of the Constitution. During the past months a vigorous campaign has been carried on by the National Child Labor Committee and other friends of the proposed amendment to secure reconsideration of the amendment in the states which originally acted adversely.

The January issue of the *American Child*, the official organ of the National Child Labor Committee, contains the following paragraphs.

Five states—Iowa, West Virginia, Minnesota, Maine, and Pennsylvania were added during December to the honor roll of states which have ratified the Federal Child Labor Amendment. Ratification has now passed the half-way mark, twenty states in all having taken favorable action. . . .

In all of these five states, ratification was given at special sessions of the legislatures, and in all except Maine, ratification had been considered at regular sessions in the spring, but had not received favorable action.

This renewal of interest in the Federal Child Labor Amendment is largely attributable to the child-labor achievements of the NRA. Through the industrial codes, child labor has been prohibited in the major industries and the states are anxious to insure the permanency of these standards *on a national uniform basis*. Individual states, although heartily favoring a sixteen-year age minimum, are unwilling to enact such standards into law as long as other states with which their industries must compete maintain low standards. Last winter bills to raise the minimum age for employment to sixteen years were introduced in eleven states but were passed in only two. Nevertheless when a few months later sixteen years became the age for employment under the NRA codes, which applied equally to all parts of the country, this standard was acclaimed universally even in those states which had defeated state legislation on the subject.<sup>4</sup>

In the February issue of the *American Child*, in answer to the objections made by President Nicholas Murray Butler to the efforts to revive and adopt the proposed child-labor amendment, the following argument is presented.

The Child Labor Amendment was drafted and adopted by Congress as a direct result of the two decisions of the United States Supreme Court declaring

<sup>4</sup> "Amendment Passes Half-Way Mark!" *American Child*, Vol. XVI, No. 1 (January, 1934), p. 1.

the first and second child-labor laws unconstitutional. (*Hammer vs. Dagenhart*, 247 U.S. 251; *Bailey vs. Drexel Furniture Co.*, 259 U.S. 20.)

It is important to note that four out of nine justices of the Court, in passing on the first law, held that Congress already possessed the power to control child labor through its authority over interstate commerce and one, in his opinion on the second law, held that Congress possessed this power through its taxing authority. The first Federal Child Labor Act was actually in force nine months before it was declared unconstitutional by a bare majority of one in the Supreme Court and there was almost universal testimony to its salutary effect. The second was enforced for three years and its results also were widely acclaimed.

The reasons for the adoption of these Federal Child Labor Acts were two-fold. They are the same reasons which now underlie the movement to secure the adoption of the amendment. First, there is the desire to prevent the exploitation of children in industry and second, the desire to protect those states wishing to guard against the evils of child labor from unfair trade competition of the manufacturers and other employers of labor in one or more states where the child-labor laws are lax.

This second reason needs a short explanation. Under the Constitution a state, while it can regulate its own child labor, cannot prevent the importation into and sale in the state of the product of child labor in other states, no matter how lax or non-existent the state child-labor law of the second state may be. Unless Congress has that power, we are in this country in an extraordinary and lamentable position. The people in each state and the nation are powerless to remedy a condition which places the people of all the states which desire to effectively restrict child labor from doing so except at the cost of submitting their manufacturers and other employers of labor to ruinous competition. The majority of the Supreme Court in declaring the Federal Child Labor Acts unconstitutional practically took the position that the nation and the states, short of the voluntary adoption by all the states of efficient child-labor laws, were powerless to effect a remedy for a condition threatening the future of the country. The continuance of this state of things was and is, we submit, unthinkable. It may be that the majority of the Court in the child-labor case were right as a matter of constitutional interpretation. In any event, their interpretation exposes a grave defect in our Constitution. This defect will be cured by the adoption of the proposed Child Labor Amendment.<sup>5</sup>

*New standards for colleges and secondary schools.*—Four years ago the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools inaugurated a study which had for its purpose a complete revision of the standards of the Association for approving institutions of higher education. The then accepted standards were found to be too me-

<sup>5</sup> William Draper Lewis and Edward F. Waite, "In Answer to President Butler's Criticism of the Proposed Child Labor Amendment," *American Child*, Vol. XVI, No. 2 (February, 1934), pp. 1, 3.

chanical, dealing chiefly with aspects of institutional administration which can readily be subjected to quantitative evaluation.

The study has progressed to the point where the committee in charge is prepared to recommend at the meeting of the Association in 1934 that the old standards be replaced by a plan of approval developed through an examination of some sixty institutions of known quality. The new plan proposes to chart the relative position of any institution under consideration in seventy-two percentile scales each of which records the range of variation in some particular of the institutions of higher education on the approved list of the Association. A profile will be prepared, and the balance or lack of balance shown by the profile as a whole will be the basis of approval or rejection.

The study made by the North Central Association of its standards for institutions of higher education has stimulated the secondary-school commissions of the regional associations to initiate a re-examination of the standards now in use in their field of operation. A committee known as the Committee for Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards and Accrediting Procedures has been created. The following paragraphs from a report prepared by a member of the staff of the United States Office of Education indicate the way in which this committee was organized.

The first effort in the direction of a co-operative study of standards was suggested by the National Association of Officers of Regional Associations at their fifth annual meeting in Washington, February, 1932. A resolution was adopted that each regional association appoint representatives to meet as a committee for the discussion of a study of secondary-school standards. Subsequently each association was approached by the officers of the National Association; all of them expressed definite interest and willingness to co-operate except the Western Association, from which no reply was received. It was thought wise, however, to delay the promotion of this project until the results of the National Survey of Secondary Education and the study of standards of institutions of higher education in the North Central Association were available.

By the spring of 1933 these two projects were well advanced, and the North Central Association at its session in April of that year authorized the chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools to appoint the twenty state chairmen as a committee on the study of standards for accrediting secondary schools. From this general committee the chairman appointed a subcommittee of five to act as an executive committee and to be the representatives of the North Central Association to work in co-operation with other regional associations. A

small amount of money was appropriated by the North Central Association for use in getting the study started.

This committee of five and representatives of the Southern Association and the Middle States Association met in Chicago on July 3, 1933, at the time of the National Education Association meetings, to consider the possibility of working together. Dr. George F. Zook, now United States Commissioner of Education, met with this group. Before the day's discussion had closed, it was clear that everyone present felt the need for enlisting the interest and active support of all regional associations of colleges and secondary schools and possibly the help of other agencies. Definite need was felt for making the study on a nation-wide basis. As a next step Commissioner Zook, at the request of the group, agreed to call together at an early date in the Office of Education representatives of all the regional associations. The call was sent out, and the response received to the invitation was immediate and enthusiastic.

*A change in federal relations to vocational education.*—President Roosevelt, acting under the authority given him by Congress to reorganize the executive departments of the federal government, transferred the Federal Board for Vocational Education from the status of an independent board to the jurisdiction of the Secretary of the Interior. Secretary Ickes, in turn, assigned the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education to the United States Office of Education. These actions correct one of the most serious inco-ordinations which ever came into American education. In 1917 Congress passed a law which was undoubtedly intended by those who favored the law to divide the educational system of this country into two distinct branches, one concerned with academic education, the other with trade and commercial education. The operation of the law as interpreted by the Federal Board for Vocational Education created serious difficulties in many of the high schools of the United States because it was almost impossible to organize programs of instruction that achieved an effective combination of general education and specialized vocational education.

Fortunately, both the Secretary of the Interior and the Commissioner of Education are fully aware of the necessity of developing a rational program of training for industry and commerce. The director of vocational education under the old board has been made a deputy commissioner of education, and harmonious planning of a new program has been inaugurated.



## THE TENNESSEE BASIN

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### ABSTRACT

Although the Tennessee Valley Plan is regional in execution, it is of national significance in many of its phases. It offers the opportunity of gaining experience in the technique of planning, the appraisal of the resources and the deficiencies of the area to be planned, the selection of social and economic objectives, the choice of machinery for executing the plans, and the check-up of results of planned policies. The experiment also promises to throw light on the question as to what type of region is best adapted to planning. In the Tennessee Valley the region of power distribution is different from the flood-control area, and the homogeneous socio-economic subregions also transcend the drainage basin. As the experiment has recently been inaugurated, greater progress has been made in the execution of the engineering plans for power production, flood control, navigation, and fertilizer manufacture than in the socio-economic field. Basic studies have, however, been undertaken looking toward the stimulation of agriculture and industry and strengthening social institutions.

### A NATIONAL EXPERIMENT IN A REGIONAL LABORATORY

The contemplated experiment in regional planning in the Tennessee area is so novel that reactions to it have been varied. Commentators who think in terms of politics have refused to recognize any but local aspects of the project and have dubbed it a new kind of pork. This being the case, certain national aspects of the plan should be emphasized at the outset. First, the core of the plan is the use of Muscle Shoals and the effort to secure for the treasury some return from the capital which has been idle there for years. Second, in the distribution of power, the Tennessee Valley Authority plans to work out a national "yardstick" as to costs and fair retail rates. Third, for the first time the potentialities of a river system are to be treated as a unit. The requirements for power, navigation, and flood control are to be co-ordinated, and the experience gained will be applicable to other rivers. Fourth, the fertilizers manufactured at Muscle Shoals will be prepared for the national, not a local, market. Fifth, the reforestation program is a part of the national scheme. Sixth, the chief aim of the Authority is so to develop the natural resources of the region that the maximum social benefit will accrue. In all this the experience in planning involves a national stake.

## THE BASES OF PLANNING

Determination to enter upon the systematic development of the natural and the human resources of a region steers the federal government into entirely new channels of action. Planning and the execution of plans has been a common procedure in the past—planning on a national scale to increase farm production carried out by the co-operation of the national, state, and county governments through the farm demonstration; planning, more recently, to curtail production through a modification of the same machinery; planning to eliminate epidemic diseases, carried out by state and county departments of health; planning to eliminate duplications in social agencies and increase financial efficiency, carried out by community chests; and planning to foster the orderly and aesthetic development of cities and suburbs, carried out by zoning ordinances and city plans. These directed social changes have been the result of specialized planning for unrelated social needs and, with a few exceptions, have been initiated and executed by such local units as cities, counties, and states.

In the regional plan for the co-ordinated development of a river basin we approach a new type of unified planning wherein the vital interrelationships of social and economic factors must be considered and wherein the effort is to be made to determine more.

If planning has been such a widespread practice in the past, the question is raised: "Why this new emphasis on planning? Why this sudden flood of literature on the subject? Why this intensification of the effort to plan? Could we not proceed as in the past to plan for emergencies as they arise?"

The answers to these questions will clarify the newer connotations which the concept has acquired. Its popularity undoubtedly arose first from the exemplification of national planning by Russia and Italy—planning on a larger scale than had hitherto been commonly visaged and planning of a more co-ordinated nature. It is this extension of scope and co-ordination of objectives that gives to the planning movement its newer implications.

A further intensification of interest has come from the rather sudden realization of the full implications of the revolutionary contributions of science and invention to modern life—the spread of

mechanized industry changing the commercial relationships of great areas, and the lag of the social technique for securing control of the tremendous power developed by economic control or in securing an equitable distribution of the tremendous surplusses of goods piled up by modern technology.

Planning and the execution of social plans involves four processes: first, the thorough appraisal of the situation of the group to which the plans are to apply; second, the choice of objectives to which the group will strive; third, the choice of the machinery which is to convey the group from the present status to the "ideal" state to be striven for; fourth, the check-up on the degree of progress toward the chosen objectives.

Of the first step—the appraisal of the situation of an area to be planned—it may be said the factual emphasis in social science during the past twenty years has at least compiled great masses of information as to the major problems of all areas in the United States. Examination of the list of graduate theses and monographs whose findings are applicable to the Tennessee Valley area is ample proof of the range and mass of data already available not only in primary tabulations but also evaluated in descriptive and interpretative monographs. Add to this the body of fact in various state and national archives, and it is apparent that the basic information is at hand for an accurate general description of the region and its capabilities and deficiencies. Some further study is necessary to bring some of this information down to date and to determine more in detail the incidence of certain problems and the administrative procedure. On the whole, however, it is possible, with a synthetic-grasp of the existing materials, to generalize the problems of the region with a fair degree of accuracy.

The second stage of planning—choosing the objectives of society—is a more subtle process. It involves decisions more in the critical ethical field than in the realm of research as it is commonly understood. In this stage the question of paramount-importance is: "Shall the plan be made *for* the region or shall it be made *by* the region?" The former procedure involves calling in the most imposing galaxy of experts in each technical field to examine the region and set up ideal objectives in various lines of social and economic endeavor.

The latter involves pooling the brains of the leaders within the region and a critical examination and appraisal of present ideals with the view of modifying and revitalizing these goals, together with advice and aid from national experts in technical fields. This choice of objectives is clearly illustrated by the problem of planning for the submarginal cove-dwellers of the mountains. Isolation and lack of social facilities have led many land-planners to assume that these cove-dwellers should be moved out. The experience of a few of these communities has been, however, that good roads, plus an aggressive, socialized, educational program, can convert a submarginal community into a community of quite exceptional vitality. Who is to determine which communities are to be eliminated and which are to be revitalized?

Illustrated in this concrete way, the three interested parties are immediately discernible: first, the people of the locality who are not capable of planning except on a limited scale but who are quite capable of, and insistent upon, exercising their right to register their opinion on such plans and procedures as may be suggested; second, the leaders of the region who can decide what roads, public works, and institutions can be built and maintained in such an area; third, the experts of national vision who are not familiar with many of the details of local sentiment and conditions but who can see this small area against the background of a national situation, such as a program for acreage reduction or increase in reforested lands.

The way of the dictator is the way of the outside expert alone. The democratic counterpart will require participation in the decisions by all three groups: local councils stimulated by adult-education programs to consider local plans and alternatives; state boards and departments to deal with the larger issues and the political implications of the plan; and general planning authorities to pass on broad policies and interstate and interregional aspects.

The third step—the choice of the machinery for executing the plans—again implies a critique of past experience in the successful direction of social movements. Failing in the production of social inventions, it is evident that the actual execution of social plans must be carried out by the machinery which we have evolved in the past, namely, the technical services of state and local government, and of

private philanthropy. There is the added possibility in the Tennessee Valley experiment that new functions of national agencies will be evolved—functions not only of stimulating and aiding local agencies but also of interregional co-ordination of the plans of these agencies.

The final phase of social planning—the check of results—requires a more up-to-date method of social bookkeeping, more reports on current operation of various agencies, possibly more frequent censuses, and more analysis and interpretation of data in these reports which indicate the success or failure of the plan in changing social conditions. This calls for more clerical work in local agencies, more work in analysis on the part of state and federal agencies, and more pragmatic research on the part of colleges and research agencies.

#### WHAT IS THE TENNESSEE REGION?

To appraise the feasibility of planning in the Tennessee Valley it is necessary first to examine the concept of a region to see wherein the Tennessee Drainage Basin fits the definition. A certain homogeneity is usually implied in the definitions of regions. The region is referred to as a "natural area," a "natural and cultural entity," a series of stimuli exerting a like influence upon all of its inhabitants.

This homogeneity has, however, assumed a variety of meanings to different disciples of regionalism. To many the nucleus of a region is a city or metropolis, the larger commercial and industrial interests of the area being centered in the urban ganglion of the system. Allied to this concept is the contention that the region is a trade area, a concatenation of buyers whose consumption of similar products and whose contacts in this consumption create a unity of opinion and reactions.

In fact, the selection of the drainage basin of the Tennessee River (the act confers powers of planning in "the drainage basin of the Tennessee River and such adjoining territory as may be related to or is actually affected by the development") as the area for development does not provide a unified region in any except an engineering sense. The requirements of navigation, flood control, and power may be co-ordinated in the area; and, if we are entering an age more largely dominated by super power, this may become a unifying force of more significance.

But even in this respect it is impossible to limit the implications of planning to the drainage basin proper. The basin is irregular in shape; and the factor of significance is the *range* of the area over which power may be profitably distributed, not the spot at which power is generated. The potential area of distribution of power includes a range of from 200 to 350 miles from the power sites which lie along the Tennessee River and its tributaries. This will demark an oblong area much larger than the Drainage Basin extending from western Virginia through western North Carolina, south of Atlanta in Georgia and of Montgomery in Alabama, and including northern Mississippi, eastern Arkansas, southern Missouri, and a large part of Kentucky. The cities of Nashville, Memphis, Birmingham, and Atlanta are outside of the Drainage Basin but within the 200-mile radius of Muscle Shoals.

If, then, the potential market for power generated is considered as the region, as it probably should be, then the Tennessee Valley Authority can plan for a wide area. This area, however, does not fit the previous concepts of regionalism. From the viewpoint of those who consider the city as the focal point and the boundary of the trade territory as the periphery, the area includes six cities classified by the census as "metropolitan." They are: in Tennessee, Memphis, Knoxville, Nashville, and Chattanooga; in Georgia, Atlanta; and in Alabama, Birmingham. In addition, parts of the trade areas of the following smaller cities are included: Bristol, Virginia; Asheville, North Carolina; Greenville, South Carolina; Jackson, Mississippi; Little Rock, Arkansas; Cairo, Illinois; and Paducah, Kentucky. This is an assortment of cities of varied sizes and interests, and not a homogeneous area with one trade and cultural focus.

If, on the other hand, we adopt, as our test of a region, the homogeneity of socio-economic characteristics, the zone of power distribution exhibits some degree of homogeneity but a sufficient variety of topography, soil, climate, minerals, and people, to warrant the statement that the area does not meet the concept of the anthropo-geographers who define a region as the area where land, work, and folk fuse into a pattern coherent within and differentiated from other regions without.

If we examine the area from this viewpoint, it appears that the

*majority* of the thus-defined region falls in the non-Negro, non-tenant, non-cotton-cultivating South. However, the southern and western reaches impinge on states where devotion to cotton culture has meant heavy ratios of tenants and Negroes.

As defined by socio-economic indices, at least seven of the major subregions of the South are largely included in the area.<sup>1</sup> These are the lofty, sparsely settled Blue Ridge Mountains; the fertile and fairly dense and industrial Tennessee Valley; the high, infertile Cumberland Mountains; the fertile and fairly dense Nashville Basin (including the northern Alabama, Muscle Shoals region); the highly industrial Birmingham mining area; the eroded Mississippi Ridge area; and the more fertile Mississippi Bluff area. In addition, the regions partially affected are the Mississippi Delta, the southwestern Kentucky tobacco-cattle area, the Shenandoah Valley, and the Cotton Piedmont. Thus the Tennessee Basin and its adjacent territory does not constitute a homogeneous socio-economic area. This variety of resources, soils, and people is in itself an advantage in experimental planning because it offers the opportunity for exemplifying interregional relationships. The planning of a homogeneous group—unless it is isolated and self-sustaining—depends upon more than its internal resources and organization; interregional and even international relationships are of paramount importance. For instance, the determination of the status of tobacco in the regional agricultural economy is governed by the demand of the rest of the nation for burley leaf and by the demand of foreign nations for the dark tobaccos. Similarly, the balance of distribution of grazing and forest land depends upon whether the region will endeavor to be merely self-sustaining in dairy products or engage in interregional

<sup>1</sup> It will be noted that major subregions are specified. The definition of regions depends largely on the fineness of subdivision, i.e., the size of subregions and the degree of internal homogeneity. The process of subdivision on the basis of minor differentiations might, of course, be carried down to a very fine point defining parts of counties as regions. This would yield several hundred minor areas. In delineating the subregions of the South, however, for practical purposes they were differentiated only in respect to major topographic, agricultural, demographic, and industrial factors, the effort being to secure groupings of counties most homogeneous in respect to the foregoing indices and sufficiently distinct from neighboring counties to stand apart culturally. Obviously, this sort of a region comes closer to what the anthropo-geographers have in mind than any previously discussed definition.

exchange and upon the potential demand of other regions for hardwood.

Thus in the Tennessee Valley Experiment practical experience can be gained in determining the technique of planning, the relationship of plans for the use of national wealth to plans for social development, the co-ordination of federal, state, and local agencies in executing plans and also in determining the size and type of region best adapted to planned development.

In the execution of the duties imposed upon it by Congress, the Tennessee Valley Authority has moved with celerity to initiate the engineering features of the program. The first step was the storage dam at Cove Creek near Knoxville, designed to regulate the flow of the river so that the minimum generating capacity of Muscle Shoals at low water will be quadrupled. The construction of this dam and the connecting transmission line will supply all the current which can be marketed at first. However, as public works measures, the construction of the Joe Wheeler Dam just above Muscle Shoals, of the Aurora Dam just above the mouth of the river, of the Pickwick Landing Dam below Muscle Shoals, and of another storage dam near the North Carolina line has been authorized.

Friction with the existing power companies in the area has been minimized by an agreement providing that the Authority is to purchase all facilities and supply current in a number of counties in northern Alabama and northern Mississippi and eastern Tennessee also supplying current to any other place not now supplied by the existing companies.

The rates announced for retailing this power are about half the average rate paid by householders in the United States and about the same as those in the more efficient municipal plants. Extensive studies in the possibilities of rural electrification in the area have also been made and the construction of some rural lines actually begun.

It is recognized that increased home electrification implies the purchase of much electrical equipment. To aid in this, a corporation has been formed for the sale and financing of such articles.

Plans looking toward fertilizer production at Muscle Shoals have also been promptly initiated. Much of the equipment for this pur-



pose is obsolete, but directors of state experiment stations have been called in to work out the most needed types of fertilizer, as the basis of a program to be put into effect when the plants are rehabilitated.

The Authority is also planning in the direction of scattering industries in small communities so that the farmers may supplement agricultural with industrial income. The beginning of this project will take the form of a three-county experiment in the rich valley of the Tennessee River.

In reforestation and soil-erosion experiments the Authority is collaborating with the Department of Agriculture to perfect plans.

On the non-material phases of planning, progress has been slower, in part because the engineering features have been the first responsibility of the Authority and in part because social and economic planning are less definite than engineering projects. Just what the Authority can accomplish in the improvement of local government, education, public health, libraries, recreation, and other phases of community development will depend largely on innovations in organization and finance and in many instances on the slower processes of legislation. It is to be emphasized in this connection that some of the poorest counties in the nation are within the area. Nowhere else, except in the ranching regions, are land values lower. On the basis of their present wealth, these counties are spending about all that could be expected for non-essential social activities. Any increase in their programs will depend upon a rise in their income or an equalization of the opportunities in these poorer areas by increased allotments of state and federal funds.

A considerable amount of research in the socio-economic fields has been started by various agencies of the federal government and in the Valley area. This research program was given especial impetus by allotment of C.W.A. funds to the Authority for work on soil erosion, rural sanitation, education, local government, and other social and economic topics.

# NATIONALISM

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## ABSTRACT

Although the political settlement of 1919 was based on the principle of nationalism, the expectation was that the economic system would remain international. But in the post-war decade nationalism spread steadily to economic matters. In 1920 the United States underwent an extreme reaction toward political and economic national isolation which it was forced to temper somewhat in the ensuing ten years. The New Deal shows a tendency toward international political co-operation, but only toward such as is consistent with a plan of national economic development. Internally, the New Deal promises to strengthen American national solidarity by increasing the integration of economic activity and organization around a national plan and by emphasizing the difference between that which is comprised in the national plan and that which is outside it.

## I

The last century of world-history has seen the steady increase in nationalism as the basis of social and political organization. The older nations have increased their solidarity, and new nations have been set up. The principle of self-determination which formed the basis of the European settlement of 1919 was a frank recognition that political reconstruction should be built on the existence of nationalism. But the framers of the peace of 1919 did not apparently expect the principle of nationalism to extend much beyond the political sphere. They seem to have assumed that, in spite of the new settlement, international trade would continue along much the same lines it had followed before the war. These had not been primarily nationalistic. In spite of certain tariff policies, the nations of the world had not gone very far in the direction of closed economic systems coinciding with national boundaries. The International Labor Office and the economic clauses of the Covenant of the League of Nations bear witness to this expectation on the part of the guiding statesmen of the conference.

But the post-war world did not return to the nineteenth-century system of international trade. The war had badly disrupted the international economic system, and in spite of numerous attempts to restore it, beginning with the Brussels Conference of 1920 and continuing to the Economic Conference of 1933, it proved impossible to

revive even the measure of free circulation of goods and capital which had existed in 1914. Instead, the nations, both old and new, drifted steadily toward policies of economic self-sufficiency. Tariff walls became higher, quota systems for imports were adopted, and all manner of new restrictions on international trade and the international movement of capital were invented and put into practice. In short, the post-war period has seen the steady growth of nationalism not only in the political but in the cultural and economic spheres.

The United States was, of course, involved in this movement. At the end of the war the United States was playing a major rôle in international affairs, but very soon a powerful reaction toward national isolation set in. The early policy of the Harding administration was to end, to as great an extent as possible, the policies of international co-operation which had characterized the Wilson administration. The League of Nations was ignored; the United States took no part in European conferences; the question of war debts was held to have no connection with reparations policy; and the American tariff was revised sharply upward in the Fordney-McCumber Act of 1922.

In the post-war decade the United States was generally successful in maintaining its policy of economic nationalism; but this included, besides a policy of restricting imports, the inconsistent policy of encouraging exports. These incompatible aims were made temporarily attainable by a steady stream of foreign loans. The United States was soon, however, forced to modify its stand toward international political co-operation. The Washington Conference was held in 1921-22. As time went on, the United States developed a friendlier attitude toward the League machinery. Throughout the entire period the executive sponsored American membership in the Permanent Court of International Justice. The United States began sending "unofficial observers" to conferences called by the League, and later official American representatives took part. Finally, toward the close of the Hoover administration, a representative of the United States actually attended a meeting of the League Council, and the State Department and the League co-operated on the Manchurian problem as well as was possible under the difficulties which flowed from the fact that the United States was not a member of the organization.

On the economic side, the United States made fewer compromises. The anomalous policy of encouraging exports was continued, but the tariff policy was maintained, and the tariff was even revised upward in 1930. Some modifications of the original post-war attitude were made, however. The Dawes Plan for reparations was drawn up, partly on the basis of a suggestion of the American Secretary of State; and in the drafting of both the Dawes Plan and the Young Plan, although the United States government did not play a part directly, prominent American citizens in contact with the American executive and American banking circles exerted a very considerable influence. In the moratorium of 1931 President Hoover went even farther and intervened directly in the reparations problem and came very near to recognizing a connection between the debt and reparations questions.

This was the general situation when the Roosevelt administration began the construction of the New Deal. The United States had begun the post-war decade by following a policy of national isolation and had been gradually drawn into more and more acts of international co-operation, but on the whole it had resisted co-operation more successfully in economic than in political matters.

## II

Before considering the nationalistic aspects of the New Deal, it may be well to consider the nature and manifestations of nationalism. Nationalism may best be defined as the attitude of a population which results in the members giving their supreme loyalty to a given nation. But in order to give this definition meaning, one must define certain of the terms used. By a "nation" is meant a group of culturally similar people, cognizant of their similarity to each other and their difference from others, whether or not held together by a common and wholly independent political organization. The "state" may be defined as the social unit held together by a wholly independent political organization. In cases where the population of a state is culturally homogeneous, and the cultural similarity of the members is definitely recognized, the state and the nation are coterminous, and we have a national state. "Nationalism" is thus easily recognized as a form of social cohesion, and this cohesion is likely to be best developed in the national state.

Within all nations as defined above the social organization is very complex. The fact that the members give their supreme loyalty to the nation does not mean that the individuals may not be united in other groups. Within all nations there are many groups, such as trade-unions, churches, voluntary societies, local communities, and political parties in which individuals are connected in an interlocking complex and to which these individuals give varying degrees of loyalty. But normally these loyalties are subordinate to that commanded by the nation. Except in the unusual circumstance of civil war or national disintegration, these other loyalties give way to national loyalty when conflict arises.

The degree of cohesion within a given nation will depend on the internal organization, on the extent to which the complex system of internal groups is welded into a single integrated system. It will manifest itself in the extent to which the nation is successful in pursuing a national policy as against a policy of co-operation and compromise with non-national groups either within or outside itself.

### III

What has been the general direction of the Roosevelt administration's policy with reference to international co-operation? Regarding the League and international organization, the policy has been similar to that of the previous administration; but it has gone even farther. Before his inauguration Roosevelt indorsed the Stimson policy relating to Manchuria. In May the President made a direct appeal to the nations of the world to support the disarmament conference, which was then faced with great difficulties; and a few days later Norman Davis, chief of the American delegation, outlined the extent of American co-operation which could be expected. The United States, he said, favors effective disarmament and is willing to go as far as other nations. The United States is willing to consult the other nations in case of a threat to peace; and in case the other nations decide on collective action against a violator of international obligations and if the United States concurs in their decision, it will take no action tending to defeat such collective effort. The United States further believes in the necessity of armament supervision and is ready to aid in the execution of such supervision. This was a clear-

er statement of just what could be expected of the American government than any American administration had previously given. While such a statement could scarcely be expected to satisfy the French demand for security, it served to clarify the problem of American participation in collective action to preserve peace, especially with reference to the thorny problems of neutrality and freedom of the seas. In addition to making this far-reaching statement of American policy, the American delegation has labored actively for a disarmament agreement. In his Wilson Day address the President reiterated his faith in the League machinery as a prop in the peace structure of the world. The United States, he said, does not contemplate membership in the League, but it intends to co-operate openly and fully with it.

The new administration has also strengthened the American policy of co-operation in inter-American matters. The Cuban situation early put this policy to severe test, but the United States has made every effort to avoid armed intervention. In the Wilson Day address the President announced that he was opposed to armed intervention in the Latin-American republics and that in cases where the failure of orderly government within an American state affects other states, this situation would be regarded as a joint concern of those affected rather than as a concern of the United States alone. This declaration is in effect a modification of the essentially unilateral interpretation which the United States had previously insisted on giving the Monroe Doctrine. At the Pan-American Conference at Montevideo the American delegation, led by Secretary Hull, followed the policy of allaying Latin-American suspicion of the United States and offered practically no resistance to the expression by the conference of opposition to armed intervention. The general result of the conference was to raise American prestige and to increase the belief throughout Latin-America in the sincerity of American expressions of anti-imperialism.

The recognition of Russia, besides ending the estrangement between these two nations, will undoubtedly facilitate universal international co-operation on any question which may arise in the future. On the whole it is hard to see how it can be denied that the Roosevelt administration has brought the United States to a fuller co-operation in international political matters.

## IV

In matters of international economic policy the New Deal has had a different trend. The policy of pushing American exports was early abandoned. Very soon after the inauguration the administration began preparations for the coming economic conference, and a number of consultations were held with regular and special representatives of foreign states. The numerous *communiqués* which resulted from these negotiations were somewhat vague, but most of them recognized that the questions of monetary stabilization and a rise of price-levels were among the important questions with which the conference might deal. As a part of the preparation for the conference the United States achieved the adoption of a tariff truce for the period of the conference, but it was not accepted without numerous exceptions and interpretations. Very soon after its adoption the President was faced with an ugly dilemma in this regard. The application of a cotton processing tax which was a part of the newly adopted agricultural adjustment policy required the adoption of compensating duties on cotton products. After some hesitation the administration put on the tax and the duties in spite of the truce.

On May 20 Assistant Secretary Moley made a very important speech over the radio, the gist of which was that great hopes should not be entertained for the accomplishments of the London Conference. The problems of the depression were, he said, primarily national and could best be met by national action. International action might aid toward recovery, but largely through a friendly exchange of views. Comprehensive international agreements for ending the depression should not be expected.

When the Conference met, the question of immediate stabilization came to the foreground at once. A great effort was made to effect some kind of agreement, and finally it became necessary for the President to take a definitive stand on the matter. In a strongly worded message of July 3, Roosevelt rejected immediate stabilization as "a purely artificial and temporary experiment" of much less value and importance than the settlement of other broader and more fundamental problems with which the conference should deal. It was obvious that this decision had been dictated by the fact that

stabilization would have interfered with the prosecution of the national recovery scheme.

The message produced a crisis at the conference. It was possible to prevent an open breach, but after several days of diplomatic sparring the conference adjourned without effecting any agreements of far-reaching importance.

On the subject of tariffs the administration has made very little progress toward international agreements. Apparently the fear of far-reaching political repercussions has prevented the President from asking Congress for authority to deal with this thorny problem, although several times he has been reported on the point of making the request.<sup>1</sup> We have already seen that the agricultural adjustment policy caused the administration to do violence to the tariff truce almost as soon as it was agreed to. Just before the Montevideo Conference it was reported that the unsettled state of economic affairs would make it impossible for the United States to discuss them, and at an inter-American conference this meant that tariffs were to be taboo. Secretary Hull was successful in getting authorization to present a resolution looking to the reduction of trade barriers, but the resolution contained the statement that "temporary, emergency or other extraordinary measures comprising domestic programs, primarily for national economic recovery," were to be regarded as exceptions.

On the whole, therefore, it must be admitted that the Roosevelt administration has shown little tendency to direct the United States toward a policy of co-operation in international economic matters. In his inaugural address the President said: "Our international trade relations, though vastly important, are, in point of time and necessity, secondary to the establishment of a sound national economy. I favor as a practical policy the putting of first things first." This statement summarizes the foreign policy of the administration to a remarkable degree. The administration favors international co-operation, and in the political sphere it has gone as far as American public opinion will permit. But in the economic sphere it regards recovery as possible on a national scale, and it is unwilling to indulge in

<sup>1</sup> On March 2 the long-delayed executive request for power to conclude reciprocal tariff agreements was sent to Congress.



international economic co-operation at the expense of the national recovery program.

## V

From the internal point of view, what are likely to be the effects of the New Deal on the degree of national cohesion? The trend seems to be toward a more highly integrated national organization, and hence toward an increase in cohesion. The general tendency toward national centralization which has been going on almost since the adoption of the federal Constitution has been greatly speeded up by the depression, and the New Deal seems destined to carry it even farther.

The N.R.A., unless it should very obviously fail, can scarcely do otherwise than increase the national cohesion. In the first place it sets up a national plan of recovery and to that extent emphasizes the distinction between American industries and those outside the nation. It gives the executive the power to protect American industry by means of tariff increases in cases where foreign competition threatens to interfere with the operation of the plan. It calls for the organization, on a national basis, of the various types of producers, and it encourages parallel action on the part of labor. It seems destined to increase the integration of the economic organization into a national system. Such a system, if only successful enough to be retained, will tend to minimize local and regional differences and to emphasize the differences between American producers and laborers and those of other nations. This will certainly tend to increase the national cohesion of the United States.

The Agricultural Adjustment Act promises to function in a somewhat similar manner. It encourages the co-operation of farmers on a national basis. It emphasizes the distinction between the home and foreign markets. It provides for executive tariff increases to offset price rises caused by the application of processing taxes. It gives American agriculture a set of interests distinct from those of farmers abroad. This will certainly tend to increase their feeling of national cohesion.

Finally, the general notion of a national plan of recovery cannot fail to have an influence on public opinion favorable to national solidarity. The idea of planning is inextricably associated with the New Deal.

A National Planning Board has actually been set up under the National Recovery Act. Planning means control; and in the present state of the world it must, almost of necessity, be national planning, for the difficulties of international control have proved to be almost insurmountable. If the recovery program is successful, it will be the national effort which has succeeded, and the group which has emerged from so severe a crisis through collective effort will certainly emerge with an increased solidarity.

The policies which comprise the New Deal have been in operation for so short a time that it is very difficult to isolate the effects they have had and to prophesy those that they will have. But, so far as it can be analyzed, the New Deal appears to be part of a general nationalist reaction to what are felt to be the shortcomings of internationalism—especially in the economic field—and it promises an intensification of American nationalism and the curtailment of such international co-operation as the administration may feel is inconsistent with its general plan of national economic development.

## THE BEGINNINGS OF RECONSTRUCTION

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### ABSTRACT

Because of the interrelation of relief, recovery, and reconstruction it is difficult to appraise the measures of the New Deal in terms of reconstruction. Reconstruction may be divided into its economic and political aspects. Many of the features of the N.R.A. might be interpreted as steps in a reconstruction program if it were certain that they were intended to be permanent. Neither the C.W.A., the P.W.A., nor the C.C.C. can be regarded as satisfactory steps to reconstruction, since they represent an authoritative transfer of purchasing power outside the channels of normal economic relations. The N.R.A., if intended as a pattern of reconstruction, is inadequate, as it perpetuates the conflict relation in industry, and is predicated upon the continuance of the profit motive. It is difficult to find any features in the economic phase of the New Deal that promise sound reconstruction. On the political side there are many more sweeping and hopeful changes, such as the extension of federal functions, an effort at national planning, the recognition of government responsibility and rights over business, and most of all a new spirit of interest in, and responsibility for, the welfare of the citizen.

The three R's with which Mr. Roosevelt has been grappling since he took the Presidential chair—Relief, Recovery, and Reconstruction—although really distinct problems, are in many ways so closely related that it is difficult to analyze or appraise any one apart from the others. The linkage between relief and recovery is obvious. Relief is a matter of providing a livelihood for millions of persons, many of them breadwinners for families, who would be certain to suffer and would be in danger of starvation without governmental relief. Funds put into their hands will be spent immediately, and almost exclusively, for essential consumer goods and services. Since the central cause of the depression is a dearth of consumer purchasing power, the stimulation of business created in this way must operate as a direct and powerful means toward recovery. But on the other hand, if the method chosen for the distribution of these funds is the employment of these persons on government work—whether called “public” or “civil” is of no consequence—there is danger that the products of this work may enter into competition with the products of private business, and therefore retard the recovery of the latter. It is for this reason that many students of the problem have insisted from the beginning that the maximum amount of government relief funds

should be spent on non-self-liquidating projects, that is, those which would create no new drain on the existing consumer purchasing power. Wisely administered, the same funds can both give relief and promote recovery.

The relation between recovery and reconstruction is much less obvious, and much more difficult to manage constructively. At the same time, it is much more important. Reconstruction can only mean the thorough reorganization of the general social life of the nation in such a way that its economic and political activities may go on smoothly and consistently, and that a level of prosperity consistent with the technical competence of society may be maintained continuously without the recurrence of disastrous peaks and depressions. The difference between reconstruction and recovery, therefore, is the difference between a permanent state of normality and a transitional stage of up-building. Measures that are appropriate for one are by no means necessarily suitable for the other. And yet some features of a curative regimen may also be essential to the maintenance of health. It is far from easy in the case of the New Deal to determine which of its provisions are to be considered as temporary and which as permanent, from the point of view of either the intent of the Administration or their intrinsic potentialities.

As a first step it may be helpful to divide the reconstruction program into its economic and its political aspects. These, too, are necessarily interrelated, and yet display quite distinguishable features. And in considering the economic program, as developed thus far, the method of elimination may be followed, disposing one after another of measures which quite clearly cannot be considered as parts of a reconstruction program. The present disposition to terminate the C.W.A. at an early day would seem to indicate it as the first to be dismissed as a purely temporary and remedial measure. It is logical to suppose that the P.W.A. and the C.C.C. would come next. It is true that a certain portion of these undertakings might be considered as permanent features of a well-ordered social system, and unless one knew the President's mind it would be impossible to say to what extent the New Deal contemplates the perpetuation of federally maintained peace-time armies of workers. This illustrates the difficulty of discussing the reconstruction program with any degree

of assurance. But on the whole it seems probable that these services will be drastically reduced, if not wholly abolished, on the return of prosperity. The past four years have demonstrated that this country is able to produce enough goods to support itself on a relatively high standard of living, including abundant luxuries for those who can pay for them, with the use of only about two-thirds of its normal working force. With more deliberate planning and management this standard might even be raised. But this end can be achieved only if the remaining third of the population is furnished with purchasing power through federal doles sufficient to enable it to maintain itself and purchase the surplus product of industry. It is hardly conceivable that the President could regard such an arrangement as a satisfactory permanent adjustment of production and consumption. We may therefore dismiss the C.W.A., the P.W.A., and the C.C.C. as important parts of the reconstruction program.

When we come to measures arising from the assumed necessity of restricting output, particularly the crop-limitation provisions of the A.A.A., the interpretation becomes still more uncertain. It is becoming steadily clearer that a condition of permanent scarcity is an indispensable requisite for the effective functioning of an economic system based on competition, monopoly, and the profit motive. That system, which is still the accepted norm of Western society, was built up under a "deficit economy," and all its salient features and basic tenets assume a general and continuous shortage of economic goods. (Note the fundamental classical doctrine of the impossibility of general overproduction.) Our whole price system, for example, is based on the principle of scarcity valuation. There can be no doubt that the perpetuation of this system requires a characteristic deficiency of commodities, with reference not only to the innate needs and desires of the population but also to the active purchaser demand, in order that the competition for goods may keep prices up to the profit level. But we now have a productive mechanism which is adequate to turn out a superabundance of goods, and which, under the spur of private ownership and individual profit-seeking, tends to be operated toward its maximum capacity. Accordingly, since there is no natural scarcity of goods, the preservation of the capitalistic system requires the creation of an artificial scarcity. The crucial

question, therefore, is whether, in initiating measures of this kind, the President is animated simply by the conviction that prosperity must be restored on the old basis before serious readjustments in the economic structure can be made, or whether he contemplates the permanent maintenance of a scarcity foundation at whatever cost of restricted output. There is the further possibility, of which more will be said later, that he has not sufficiently grasped the meaning of the new economic realities so that he comprehends the relation between scarcity and private profit-seeking business.

Some light on this question is thrown by certain features of the N.R.A. Early in his administration the President made it clear that he was not entirely oblivious of the needs of the consumer, or of the well-established fact that deficiency of consumer purchasing power was the root cause of the depression. Two provisions of the N.R.A., the shortening of the work week and the establishment of minimum wages for the lower grades of labor, were apparently designed specifically to bring about a more efficient balance between production and consumption through a more equitable distribution of purchasing power. Again, it is impossible to say to what extent these were regarded as means to recovery or reconstruction. The real significance of the N.R.A., for our present purposes, is that it assumes and implies the continuation of the characteristic features of the old economic system. It is doubtful, accordingly, whether any germs of genuine reconstruction can legitimately be found in it.

The two basic features of the capitalistic system that the N.R.A. takes for granted, and perpetuates if it does not actually intensify, are the conflict relation between the various factors of production and the profit motive as the central dynamic of economic activity. The characteristic organization of a productive unit under the capitalistic system is an owner of a business—represented in typical cases by the stockholders of a corporation—obtaining from other sources the capital, land, labor, and management necessary for the conduct of his business. The terms on which these four factors are secured are essentially those of contract. Now the essence of contract is bargaining, and the essence of bargaining is conflict. The whole spirit of classical economics assumes that this conflict-nexus in business is salutary for both the individuals concerned and soci-

ety. It has taken a century and a half to demonstrate the falsity of this assumption when applied to modern conditions. The demonstration is now conclusive to most impartial analysts, and yet the N.R.A. is predicated on the continuance of this conflict relation. The heavy emphasis laid upon trade unions is the outstanding evidence of this, for the trade union by its very nature is an instrument of conflict. The attempt on the part of some administration officials to discourage the unions from using their principal weapon, the strike, is a tacit admission of the facts. Furthermore, as regards the relations between the business owner and the other three factors, there is nothing in the N.R.A. that alters the fundamental conflict basis, though there is an obvious effort to mitigate some of the extreme developments of the struggle.

So it is with the central profit motive. The New Deal evidently expects business to continue on a competitive, profit-seeking basis. To be sure, some of the extremes of competition, particularly so-called "unfair competition," are put under restraint by the codes, trade agreements, and permitted mergers and consolidations. But there is no evidence of any recognition of not only the destructiveness of unrestricted profit-seeking, but also the physical impossibility of unlimited monetary profit-getting, under the conditions of modern industry and finance. The assumption is that under proper regulation, largely self-regulation, competitive private business may continue to operate on the basis of a competitive struggle for profits without inevitably plunging the country into repeated abysses of depression. The fallacy of this assumption alone is sufficient to indicate that the N.R.A. is either not to be considered a reconstruction measure at all, or that as such it is entirely inadequate.

Finally, the New Deal manifests no sufficient recognition of the needs and rights of the consumer, nor of his fundamental place in modern economic functioning, and the necessity of recognizing him as the keystone of the whole arch of prosperity. The President is evidently dominated by the old producer's philosophy, and still believes that the way to help the consumer as far as it is necessary to seek directly to help him at all, is to help the producer. His continuous emphasis upon price raising is sufficient evidence of this, for all price increases are, in their primary incidence, prejudicial to the

consumer. This emphasis on production and price level may be due to the emergency nature of recovery, when the first task might be assumed to get industry going. But in the long run the consumer's rôle must be considered, particularly if purchasing power is not to break down again into another serious depression. The meager attempts to promote consumer interests through the minimum wage and maximum week provisions, even though they are to be considered as permanent, are insufficient to produce any important augmentation of consumer purchasing power, and under conditions of continuous technological advance would have to be readjusted drastically at short intervals in order to produce any significant realignment of incomes.

The conclusion must be that, in the economic field, there are no indubitable indications of a well-defined reconstruction program. The steps already taken are open to two diametrically opposite interpretations. They may be considered as progressive moves in the direction of a thoroughly socialized economy, or they may be regarded as minimum concessions necessitated by the conditions to patch up the old machine and get it ready for another run. No question before the country today is of more importance than the question as to which of these two eventualities more nearly represents the President's actual program, and is more congenial to his own inclinations and preferences. He alone can answer that question. There is a good deal of evidence that, in the beginning of his administration at least, Mr. Roosevelt regarded the capitalistic system somewhat as a perfectly good automobile with a run-down battery. If only enough pressure could be exerted to get it to the top of the hill and start it rolling down it would then pick up life and go ahead under its own power. At worst, it needed nothing more drastic than the tightening up of certain parts, and the readjustment of some of its vital mechanisms. This kind of procedure obviously does not merit the term "reconstruction." If, in point of fact, the President has something of a diametrically different character in mind, his purpose has yet to be revealed.

When we turn to the political field, however, we discern an entirely different situation. Beyond question the spirit that animates the Administration is novel and unprecedented. It has several salient



aspects. First of all there is an entirely new concern for the welfare of the individual, and assumption of responsibility for promoting it. This is evidenced not only in the agencies for direct federal relief which have been discussed, but also in the favorable attitude toward various legislative measures such as the food and drug bill and the securities and stock exchange bills. Closely related to this, obviously, is the sweeping extension of government control over business, represented by the initiation of the N.R.A., the banking investigation, the cancellation of the air mail contracts, etc. It is hardly too much to say that the attitude of the New Deal toward big business, as contrasted with that of recent administrations, is nothing short of revolutionary. If carried to the extent that now seems to be promised it will certainly produce changes that can legitimately be called reconstruction.

Here is where the economic aspects and the political aspects touch. The logical application of this spirit must eventually, intentionally or unintentionally, produce effects upon the actual conduct of business of a sweeping sort. The same may be said of the great developmental projects, such as those of the Tennessee and Mississippi valleys. These are enterprises which, for their very magnitude, comprehensiveness, and intrepidity, thrill the imagination and stir the hopes of every liberal-minded citizen. What they may portend for the ultimate extension of federal control over the enterprises that supply the basic needs of the people, and federal participation in actually serving those needs, can only be guessed. But they can certainly be interpreted as evidence of a determination to abandon the policy of leaving the provision of fundamental necessities to the unorganized, haphazard, competitive, wasteful rivalry of private concerns. The scope of these undertakings need be less than doubled to signalize a comprehensive system of national planning for the entire country.

An outstanding feature, therefore, of the political reconstruction that seems to be well under way is a wide extension of federal interest in and responsibility for the maintenance of the good life of its people. This must inevitably involve the enlargement and concentration of powers and functions in the central government. It indicates a definite progression toward a national organization that can

better be described as "A United State" rather than "The United States."

It would be interesting to speculate by just what steps this impending reorganization is to be realized. One can easily visualize, without doing too much violence to the facts of the case, the progressive nationalization of the banks, the railroads, all transportation and communication systems and other public utilities, fundamental natural resources, and all businesses that are by their very nature monopolies. But there is no assurance as to just the extent to which such speculations would be justified. The attitude of the Administration is outspokenly empirical. President Roosevelt, like a good American, has frankly expressed his willingness to try anything once. He has shown an unprecedented desire to surround himself with competent expert advisers and research workers. He is refreshingly free from the trammels of tradition and precedent. He has displayed an admirable resistance against the assaults of self-seekers of various brands. His practice of taking the people into his confidence by direct appeals and communications has endeared him to them and consolidated his strength, thereby building up an extraordinary support for each new measure that he sees fit to introduce.

It seems inevitable that his political liberalism and his economic conservatism (if such it really be) must sooner or later come to grips with each other. A country cannot live half in the nineteenth century and half in the twentieth any more than it can remain half slave and half free. The destiny not only of the United States but of the world must be profoundly influenced by the decision as to which principle wins out. The economic structure characteristic of the New Deal might easily be diverted toward the right or the left. The balance between Fascism and Communism is a delicate one. If a sound and congenial American development lies somewhere between the two it can be accomplished only by a wise and judicious adjustment and guidance, the responsibility and the capacity for which lie primarily in the hands of President Roosevelt. His ideas of what constitutes genuine reconstruction are about the most important ideas in the world at the present moment.

## SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY

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### ABSTRACT

The Sherman Act, labor injunctions, and the Eighteenth Amendment belong to the same order of social thought; the N.R.A. and the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment are indications of the victory of a different social philosophy. Under the guise of a recovery program an anti-individualist trend has been institutionally established, strongly supported at the present time by public opinion. But the institutions in which the new trend is embodied can be captured by one or other of very diverse purposes, and the issue between them is still very uncertain. Incidentally, the change of direction toward socio-economic planning indicates a new rôle for the sociologist.

It is more than a conjuncture that the year 1933 witnessed both the enactment of the N.R.A. and the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment. To the prospective vision of most observers each of these events would have seemed, only a few years back, just as impossible as the other. The advance of the state into new areas of economic control, coinciding with its retreat from a domain of moralistic control, represents the growth of a new social philosophy. It may well mark a stage in the passing of an era. The United States has been conspicuous both for its multitudinous laws and for the individualistic temper which these laws nevertheless registered. For the individualistic bias is toward controls which guard the arena of economic and political struggle against the influences which threaten it. Sherman Acts, labor injunctions, laws against gambling, drinking, and Sunday recreations, were all consistent expressions of the same fundamental philosophy, bulwarked as it was in the last resort by the judicial interpretation of the Constitution. And it is the onset of a new social philosophy which is attacking them all alike.

The magnitude and the apparent suddenness of the change have taken the world by surprise. When the "new deal" was proclaimed in the summer of 1932, few suspected that the fulfilment of an election promise would be translated into so far-reaching a reorganization of the nation's economic and social structure. No doubt the cumulative effects of the depression had profoundly shaken the philosophy which at first saw in it only a backwash of the inevitable

tide of progress and confidently expected that the "natural forces," gaining strength by the interruption, would soon sweep onward through recovery to yet higher levels of what was known as prosperity. But recovery was still the slogan, with the presupposition that, once achieved, the general scheme of life would continue much as before. The significant fusion of the ideas of economic recovery and social reconstruction, so perplexingly exemplified by the N.R.A., had not yet emerged. Under the guise of a recovery program another set of ideas altogether came to the front, the very antithesis of those for which the accredited leaders of the previous decade, such as Coolidge and Hoover and Mellon and Ford, had stood. Recovery, as a technical economic problem, had little enough to do with the abolition of child labor, the recognition of unions, the guarantee of collective bargaining, the legal establishment of minimum wages and maximum hours, the curbing of the stock exchange and the investment house, and the codification of all the industries of the country. The fusion, rather than the reconciliation, of the two principles in a single program creates, as we shall see, one of the most interesting problems for those who would seek to gauge the extent to which a new social philosophy has come to permeate the community.

For the so-called recovery program has in it the potentiality of two quite divergent developments. One is along the lines of a drastic control of capitalist exploitation, involving a socially planned economy in which the depersonalized pursuit of private profit is subject to check at a thousand strategic points. The other is the erection of a system of industrial syndicates, somewhat analogous to the fascist conception of the corporate state but without the unifying discipline which the latter implies. The reversal of the policy of the Sherman Act may lead to this result if certain tendencies of the code-making organizations are allowed free play. For example, if each inclusive industrial association is to acquire an effective power to limit output and raise prices, the competitive struggle is merely resumed under the guidance of the individualistic motive, at a higher level of organization. Competent observers are at present divided as to which of these two tendencies is already victorious. For example, in the *Forum* for January, 1934, an editorial identifying the N.R.A. with the first principle is immediately followed by an article in which it is

declared to be the vehicle of the second. The issue will no doubt depend on the quality and strength of the change in attitude which has already replaced the policy of economic laissez-faire by the policy of national economic planning.

The future historian of this epoch may declare, as historians are apt to say of other sudden-seeming changes, that in truth the change in popular attitude from an individualistic to a more collectivistic philosophy was less abrupt and less complete than it seems. I hope the sociologists of today will help the future historian to solve the question, by a careful study of the organs and indexes of opinion during the past few years. That there has been a definite shift in attitudes seems beyond question, though its precise character involves much fuller investigation than it has yet received. It is seen in the fact that the politicians of the opposition shrink, in view of approaching elections, from coming out decisively against the "new deal," that even in republican strongholds such as Pennsylvania the old republican guard are meeting the note of challenge, while some even claim, oblivious of the famous reference to "rugged individualism" which the ex-president made, that the new policy was really inaugurated in the régime of Hoover. It is seen in the lack of resonance to the protests of the relatively few outspoken adherents of the individualistic order, such as Beck and Ogden Mills. It is seen in the loss of popularity which befell a popular hero—Al Smith—when he took a stand against the government's program. It is seen in the failure of the groups, from chambers of commerce to professors of economics, which have sought to establish resistance points against the new principles. Other groups which might have been expected to lead the attack, such as Wall Street and the orthodox bankers, have been discredited in the popular mind. The present triumph of the program of economic control is finally witnessed to by the resounding popularity of the President himself.

How genuine and how deep-seated the change of mood may be is of course still open to question. Foreign observers have long regarded the tradition of individualism as deeply rooted in the mores of this country. On the other hand it has been pointed out that the basis of this individualism in economic and social conditions has long been undermined. The frontier in American history has dis-

appeared. The alternative of homesteading has no longer any meaning to the city worker. The social mobility of the population has ceased to keep pace with their physical mobility. The proportion of important executive positions which fall to the sons of business men, as compared with those which other groups obtain, has increased—a fact admitted, *malgré eux*, by Taussig and Joslyn in their study of *American Business Leaders*. The reality of class distinctions has become more apparent, even though the study of class has been almost entirely neglected by American sociologists. The range of individualist competition has been lessened by the development of large-scale business in the corporate form, so that by the year 1930 “two hundred big companies controlled 49.2 per cent or nearly half of all non-banking corporate wealth, while the remaining half was owned by the more than 300,000 smaller companies” (Berle and Means, *The Modern Corporation and Private Property*, p. 28). The automatic forces dear to Adam Smith have been increasingly checked in a hundred directions, through controls ranging from those exercised over international trade to those which invaded, in the years prior to 1933, the final citadel of individualist faith, the gold standard itself.

If, then, there was this lag between conditions and attitudes, we cannot conclude from the seeming suddenness of the change that it is transitory or necessarily shallow. Moreover, attitudes tend to be reinforced by the appropriate institutions, and the new administration has in a remarkably short time established a vast system of controls which, even if in part created to meet an emergency, are not likely to disappear with its passing. The experience of other countries has shown, for example, that it would be exceedingly difficult to repeal the kind of social legislation which has been introduced on a national scale under the aegis of the N.R.A. It must also be remembered that it is the traditionally most individualistic sector of the population, the agricultural class, which has been hit most hard by the depression; suffering particularly from the disproportionate burden of indebtedness which grew automatically in proportion to the fall of prices. The A.A.A. is in fact a collectivist experiment of a drastic kind, and in rallying to it the farmers have committed themselves to a whole program of national planning quite incompatible with the tenets of individualism.

The deeper meaning of the change in social philosophy has still to be explored. For the trend from individualism to institutionalism may signify something more than a change of front in the pursuit of economic gain—or even of “prosperity.” It may be also the expression of a quest for a more satisfying way of life. There have been signs of a growing dissatisfaction with the utilitarian mechanistic *Weltanschauung* which is congenial to economic individualism. The kind of life which fulfils itself in the business, the service club, and the family has narrow cultural horizons, a narrowness portrayed in the recent literature of protest. Moreover, the exploitative character of the individualistic order has been brought home to the consciousness of the average citizen by the revelations of banking scandals and colossal graft. At the present stage the desire for a new orientation of life, for a more co-operative order with larger social aims, has found numerous expressions.

But there are many uncertainties in the situation which must restrain optimistic estimates regarding the inauguration of a period of social and cultural reformation. The experiment of social planning is full of difficulties. The promises which heralded the “new deal” are hard to fulfil. The new economic organizations will probably endure, but the vital question concerns the spirit which will animate them. There has been a growing unrest of labor groups, as shown by the increase of strikes. The codes may be manipulated in favor of the formerly dominant capitalist groups, which will not easily surrender their prerogatives. The consumer—which means the people as a whole—may be disadvantaged by the intrenchment in new lines of industrial dictators. The farmer, unless the situation is safeguarded, may find that the higher prices he receives are outweighed by the higher cost of living, and retreat again to a disgruntled individualism. The idea of economic planning may be tied up to the principle of economic nationalism—a danger of which there have already been significant signs—or even of economic imperialism. The new institutions are here, but the essential point is—Who shall control them?

The answer is important not only for the United States but for the world. The American experiment must be seen against a European background, where far more drastic methods are being tried, involving an abrogation of the essential liberties which have been sup-

posed to be the driving force of Western democracy. But an ideal of national solidarity animates these new movements, gives them a certain dignity and purposefulness, and explains the willingness of large masses to surrender themselves to an order which sacrifices the principle of personal freedom. A book which has some vogue in Europe just now is Jung's *Modern Man in Search of a Soul*. In a way the nations seem to be out on the same elusive quest, seeking some basis of internal unity, some sense of a national mission. Some of them have found, at a price, a kind of mass-soul. Is it necessary to pay this price, to crush cultural divergence as well as to endanger international civilization, for the sake of solidarity? The failure of the American experiment may tempt more men to answer "Yes"; its success would bring succor and example to the many who still wish to answer "No."

Whatever the issue, there is evident a trend toward economic planning which takes different forms in different countries, according to their situation and their temper. From this trend the United States has not escaped. And it should be observed that the new social philosophy and its practical realization provide a new opportunity, a new rôle, for the sociologist.

So long as the economic order is traditionally conceived as regulated by automatic forces, the study of changes within that order is the undisputed territory of the economist. In reality the economic facts are always interwoven with the social, but the classical hypothesis of economic automatism permits the isolated study of the former. But in so far as a planned economy is realized, the theoretical separation is no longer possible. Economic planning is socio-economic planning. It must take cognizance of the whole gamut of social factors, for it directs economic mechanisms to social ends and must envisage the varieties of social needs and social relationships. Therefore, in economic planning there is no less a place for the sociologist than for the economist, whether the project be housing or employment or wage-rates or conservation of resources or the ratio of spending to saving or the relation of agriculture to industry or the elaboration of industrial codes. Economics under the theory of automatism has tended to confine itself to a sector of human experience assumed to be exclusively economic. The recent develop-



ment of institutional economics marked a step away from this viewpoint but has so far made no vigorous advance in the realistic study of socio-economic institutions, because it has generally lacked the sociological interest. The social reality is not divided into the compartments of the economist and of the sociologist. Each must learn to contribute his own approach and his own interest in co-operative attack upon problems, whether in the practice of government or in the pursuit of knowledge, which concern them both.

## THE FUTURE OF THE NEW DEAL

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### ABSTRACT

The energy back of the New Deal is due to a synchronizing of the business cycle and the political cycle, and will spend itself. The pattern taken by the New Deal is the framework of the relationship of government to business. Most of the New Deal activities follow trends which have been in existence for many years and which are likely to continue, though some of them may be combated successfully. A much closer union between business and government is predicted.

Is the New Deal a revolution signalizing the passing of the old order and the birth of a new one? Or is it merely a transitory phase of economic recovery? These questions have been discussed in the preceding contributions, but not with particular reference to the future. Any prediction as to the future of the New Deal must rest upon the explanation given of its origin. Two phenomena need to be explained. These are the unusual burst of energy that created it and the particular forms this energy took.

This unusual drive of energy is due basically to the synchronizing of the business cycle and the political cycle. Changes in the political life of the nation come every four or eight years, on dates fixed without reference to the fluctuations of business. Usually a business panic or industrial revival comes somewhere in the course of an administration, so that a president will have part of his administration during good times and part during bad times. But the preceding Republican administration was identified wholly with the severest depression of recorded history. On its very last day in office the banks all over the nation were closed. The change in the political cycle occurred when the economic cycle was in its trough. The Democrats came in with recovery, whether it was due to their efforts or to economic laws, and brought with them the energy of springtime after the long dark winter.

The only other time in recent American history when such a synchronization has occurred was the election in the autumn of 1896. There had been four years of very severe depression, and the protest

lined up with vigor behind William Jennings Bryan. But at that time the result was different, for the rural radicals and inflationists lost and the conservative sound money group of the industrial East won. The protest party never got control of the governmental machinery in 1896 as they did in 1932. If they had won there might have been a 'ninety-six model of a New Deal, or an attempt at one.

Naturally, there are differences. The tempo is faster now. There are the radio, the telephone, the motion picture, and many other agencies of propaganda. The country is much more industrialized and urbanized. Since unemployment is an urban phenomenon, there was probably much more distress in the early 1930's than in the 1890's. The depression of the 1930's was more severe also. Then, there are differences in leadership. President Roosevelt is not only a very courageous and skilful leader but has shown himself unusually sensitive to the appeals arising in a period of recovery. So the social effort which has characterized 1933 might well be greater than would have been displayed had Bryan won in 1896.

One other explanatory factor needs to be mentioned. It is the tendency of postponed social changes to pile up as in a dam, and to be released with a rush when the dam breaks. Government in particular shows such inertia, perhaps more so than economic organizations, against changes precipitated by inventions and technology. Thus the governmental unit, the county and its boundary lines, laid out in the days of the horse and buggy and an agricultural civilization, resists changes precipitated by the automobile and an industrial civilization. Many changes in governmental structure necessary to meet the problems of business crises, industrial expansion, and economic planning, seem to have been long postponed. Now they come one after another in various alphabetical arrangements.

The exceptional display of energy can thus be explained. The particular forms this energy takes are of course not accounted for by the harmony in the timing of the political and the business cycle. The form of the political and economic pattern is determined by the secular trend rather than the cyclical forces. Their explanation lies in historical antecedents. Any New Deal that Bryan might have brought would certainly have been very different from that ushered in by Roosevelt. The broad outline of the new pattern is undoubted-

ly the framework of governmental and business relationships. The forces of our social life have thus been converging for some time.

These trends in government and industry not only furnish the pattern of the New Deal but are the guides to its future. The two parts of the pattern are public control, on the one hand, and governmental aid, on the other, which are based respectively on the vigor of economic trends and on the weaknesses of the system. There remains the question of the changes in government that will accompany these economic changes.

One trend that is heading us toward a union of government and business is the push toward monopolistic prices, well exemplified in Germany by the cartel. The Sherman Anti-Trust Law antedates the election of 1896 and the trust prosecutions of Theodore Roosevelt followed shortly after. But the movement away from competitive prices was much farther along in 1933. The decade following the World War showed an unprecedented creation of business combinations. The spurt under the N.R.A. is different. It has not furthered the business merger so much as it has the cartel arrangement toward monopolistic prices. The N.R.A. influence in this direction has not been great in all industries, but has rather been effective in a few industries most of which are basic. The vigorous blows against unfair competition are part of the passing of *laissez faire* as it was known in the nineteenth century. The cause of the small businessman was championed by the last Democratic president in office; but the difficulties of the man who would be a small entrepreneur are even greater under the present Democratic resident at the White House. All these trends mean a multiplication of closer contacts between government and business, the nature of which will be the chief issue in coming presidential elections. Some voters will want to diminish them, some will want war against monopoly in favor of a regulated competition, while others will want planning and control of monopoly.

The trend is distinctly toward price-fixing, but there are many industries and many articles to be priced. It is the basic ones whose products are widely used that are most important, particularly where the products are standardized and where the price-fixers are few in number. Policies in regard to the basic industries are not so

difficult to achieve as for industry as a whole. A movement toward some kind of control can be forecast on the basis of our public utility experience if the trend toward cartels continues and is not successfully combated. The planning issue is precipitated by two considerations. One is the danger under a cartel system of price rises not being checked before they far outrun purchasing power, thus precipitating severe depressions, toward which cartels are slow to make adjustments. The second is the danger of restricted production which tends to keep the standard of living down. Fortunately the movement is slow. Any comprehensive planning and control of the manifold forces of our economic life is almost inconceivably difficult.

Monopoly, important as it is, by no means comprises all the trends in the relations of government and business. For illustration, in agriculture, the movement has been toward a closer union. But the cartel issue is not involved though the lifting of agricultural prices is for the present an objective. Agriculture needs the help of government, however, in many different ways. Growing markets for agricultural products are fewer; mechanization of agriculture means greater production per unit of labor and need for fewer farmers; adjustment to the business cycle is different for farmers; population adjustment in the outlying marginal areas is slow. These trends will not be reshaped soon, and the co-operation with government may be expected for some time. Past experience suggests the formula that when industries are sick the rôle of the government is one of aid but that when they get well the rôle is one of control for those that encroach on the general welfare.

There is still another rôle of governmental aid not mentioned in the two preceding paragraphs. It is that of providing an orderly social atmosphere favorable to the functioning of economic institutions, whether sick or well. Police and the regulation of public utility rates are of this type. The further extension of government into the field of money and credit may be another example. That a satisfactory medium of exchange is a *sine qua non* of a prosperous business will be admitted. It may be argued that recent money and credit difficulties were largely due to the disruption caused by the war, and as the war recedes, these disturbances will settle. Quite apart from influences of war finance, however, the trend is for

credit, unlike money in earlier economies, to become more complexly integrated with business. Much of the interdependence of modern economic life is based on the nature of the credit structure. Credit disintegration and business depressions go hand in hand, as has been abundantly clear since 1929. The future of government and business relationships must be predicated on the fact that the economic structure, with no particular close connection with government, came near to a complete collapse. A repetition is possible in the 1940's. It is reasonable to expect that there will be an attempt at greater co-operation to prevent a recurrence. Hence efforts toward a greater orderliness throughout the credit institutions may be expected.

Another illustration of a sector of our economic life that needs to be helped by constructive action on the part of government is foreign trade. The New Deal concerned itself little with this field in 1933. But the situation will force it to be incorporated in programs for the future. The world-movement away from the freedom of pre-war trade seems likely to continue. This does not mean necessarily less trade and higher tariffs, but rather more governmental direction in the interests of economic balance and revival.

With this economic evolution there is to be noted governmental changes also. The year 1933 has witnessed also a great expansion of governmental boards and administrations. These are merely the structures needed in making the effort of recovery. Will they pass when recovery is accomplished? Undoubtedly some will disappear, but it should be noted that the form of the governmental pattern shaping in 1933 is in line with trends extending many years back. That is to say, governmental functions have been expanding more or less continuously for a long time. Such a growth is also true of the centralizing of governmental activities. The shift from local and state governments to federal has been especially noticeable in relief both personal and corporate. These shifts in general are due to the network of communication and transportation agencies that have had such a brilliant development in the first third of this century, unifying the country to an extent undreamed of and nationalizing our economic life. All signs point to an expanding governmental organization, with possible allowances for occasional "returns to

normalcy." This governmental expansion is not expected to take the form of fascism, however. The long democratic tradition and governmental inertia are powerful resistances against its importation and development here.

Men are moved by ideals and it is natural that efforts toward recovery should be accompanied by attempts to build a better and a more just economic structure. But fervor is by its nature not long sustained. The present is peculiarly favorable for action in changing social structure, and represents an opportunity that comes only rarely. By the same logic it follows that this fervor will cool as time passes. Will its gains have been consolidated, or will its "idealisms" be transitory? Will the New Deal of Roosevelt pass as did the "New Freedom" of Wilson? Little is heard now of "making the world safe for democracy," of the "fourteen points," and of other ideologies of that time. As the burst of energy spends itself, some recession in ideology may be expected. But the coming struggle over what the government should do in regard to business and the social welfare should keep ideals to the fore. For instance, government has assumed much of the responsibility usually carried by private social work and philanthropy during the present emergency. As the emergency passes the volume of these responsibilities will be liquidated. But for many years the trend has been toward a transfer of functions from private agencies of social work to governmental. The next step will be the development of social insurance; at least this issue will have to be met, regarding unemployment, which is likely to be large, regarding old age, which will exist in considerably larger proportions, and regarding sickness, whose costliness is being more appreciated. This is only one illustration of how the growing functions of government are driven on by ideals. How it will be with labor is difficult to foresee. But with a closer union of government and industry, the functioning of labor unions must surely change, and certainly away from their individualism. There is, of course, no question about the great importance of ideals and social philosophies in determining the direction we take toward economic fascism, communism, or a goal somewhere between.

Projecting trends forward is not, of course, a sure basis of prediction in human affairs, though it does very well in astronomy. A

valuable check is to view trends over a very long time. In this case a long-time perspective will be seen to support the conclusions drawn from a shorter view. Looking back to the period before our present power age began, it is seen that there were five great social institutions that regulated our behavior. These were the family, the church, the local community, industry, and the state. The first three have been weakening more or less in the range and degree of their control over our conduct. The family is yielding ground to other institutions and to the individual personality. The sphere of the church's control is diminishing. The social pressure of the local "main street" is giving way to the impersonality of the metropolis. The result has been, of course, a great extension of freedom of behavior. But while these three institutions have been declining and giving us more liberty, the other two, industry and the state, have been expanding tremendously and imposing restrictions. As these areas of activity widen, they impinge and overlap still more. Their adjustment, one to the other, is the great problem of the future. The issue was forced dramatically in 1933; and the end is not in sight.



## NEWS AND NOTES

*Membership of the American Sociological Society.*—The new members received into the Society since the March issue and up to March 15 are as follows:

Bacon, William, 6136 Ellis Ave., Chicago  
Beecher, John Newman, Box 543, Chapel Hill, N.C.  
Bergman, Robert D., 294 Forest Ave., Rye, N.Y.  
Black, Alexander, 5603 Maryland Ave., Chicago  
Blakeslee, Frances, 21 Downing St., Worcester, Mass.  
Dinsmore, Kate A., 3500 Gaston Ave., Dallas, Tex.  
Doner, D. B. (registrar), South Dakota State College, Brookings, S.D.  
Flower, Christine, Trowbridge House, Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich.  
Frasher, Charles B., International Y.M.C.A. College, Springfield, Mass.  
Goldstein, Eleanor, 701 Park Ave., Elysia, Ohio  
Harlan, Howard H., 1108 West Franklin St., Richmond, Va.  
Himes, Joseph S., Jr., Box 436, Austin, Tex.  
Hoeglund, Harold A., 1245 Oread, Lawrence, Kan.  
Hughes, Margaret M., 3512 Baring St., Philadelphia, Pa.  
Kamsler, Harold M., 867 Hunts Point Ave., New York City  
Kohler, Max J., 777 West End Ave., New York City  
Kramer, Samuel A., 139 East Roosevelt Blvd., Philadelphia, Pa.  
Lindsay, Lewis P., 823 Acklen Ave., Nashville, Tenn.  
McAfee, Alice W., Apt. E, 1 Cedar Blvd., Pittsburgh 16, Pa.  
Moore, Underhill, 127 Wall St., New Haven, Conn.  
Nolan, James Allen, Catholic University, Washington, D.C.  
Oldham, Mabel Ruth, Box 1033, C.I.A. Station, Denton, Tex.  
Osborn, Curtis, Williams Hall, Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich.  
Rich, Wayne, 7852 Essex Ave., Chicago  
Rossi, Helen D., 400 Mission Court, University City, Mo.  
Sears, Gordon H., 5736 Blackstone Ave., Chicago  
Shafer, Karl A., Department of Sociology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La.  
Sharp, Luther, Library, College of the Pacific, Stockton, Calif.  
Simms, B. F., Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Ill.  
Staudt, E. P., 1339 John Jay Hall, Columbia University, New York City  
Vance, Rupert B., Box 495, Chapel Hill, N.C.  
Ward, James E., Jr., No. 5, Jack Jouett Apts., University, Va.  
Wiggam, A. E., 241 Central Park West, New York City  
Wylie, Margaret, 522 Thurston Ave., Ithaca, N.Y.  
Zeigler, Carl W., 638 Maple St., Annville, Pa.

*American Sociological Society.*—The twenty-ninth annual meeting of the American Sociological Society will be held in Chicago, December 26–29, 1934. The headquarters will be at the Morrison Hotel.

The third chapter membership in the American Sociological Society has been taken out by the Johnson C. Smith Sociological Society, Johnson C. Smith University, Charlotte, N.C.

*American Home Economics Association.*—The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association will be held in New York, June 25–30, 1934. The general theme is "The Consumer and the New Economic Order."

*National Advisory Council on Radio in Education.*—The Fifth Annual Institute for Education by Radio will be held at Ohio State University, Columbus, April 30–May 2, 1934.

*Ohio Sociological Society.*—The ninth annual meeting of the Ohio Sociological Society was held in Columbus, Ohio, April 6 and 7, 1934. Special sessions were devoted to the discussion of problems in the fields of social pathology, social work, crime, and methodology and research.

*Pacific Affairs.*—Beginning with the number for March, 1934, *Pacific Affairs* appears as a quarterly instead of a monthly publication. It is now issued from New York instead of from Honolulu. The new editor is Owen Lattimore.

*Social Work Today.*—The first issue of *Social Work Today*, sponsored by the Social Workers Discussion Club of New York City, appeared in February. It seeks to devote itself to a critical consideration of basic social problems and to issues of current interest in the field of social work.

*Sociologists and Governmental Research.*—In response to the demand of different departments of the government, a considerable number of sociologists are now engaged in research and field studies.

Professor William F. Ogburn, of the University of Chicago, served for a time as a member of the Consumers Advisory Board of the National Recovery Administration. Professor Stuart A. Rice, of the University of Pennsylvania, is associate director of the Census Bureau.

In the section on Unemployment Relief Surveys in charge of Howard B. Myers, assistant director to Corrington Gill, director of research and statistics, several sociologists are serving in different capacities. Professor F. F. Stephan, director of research of the Pittsburgh Federation of

Social Agencies, is technical adviser on the unemployment-relief census and supporting field studies. Professor Clark Tibbitts, of the University of Michigan, is senior research supervisor in charge of tabulation and assisting in planning new studies. Mr. Earl R. Moses, formerly director of research for the Urban League of Chicago; Mr. Glen Taylor, from the University of Wisconsin; Mr. Allen D. Edwards, from Duke University; and Mr. Lewis Allen, from the University of Michigan, are all engaged in research and field work on these studies. Professor E. D. Tetreau, of Ohio State University, is rural-relief analyst and is supervising rural-relief studies, with the assistance of Professor H. W. Beers, of Cornell University; Professor Conrad Taeuber, of Mount Holyoke College; Professor James O. Babcock, of the Chicago People's Junior College; Professor Philip G. Beck, of Ohio State University; Mr. B. F. D. Runk and Miss Rosalind Tough, both of whom are from the University of Wisconsin. Dr. Erich Kraemer, formerly of the University of Hamburg, is assistant statistician. Rural-relief studies that are being carried on in different counties of the United States are under the direction of the following rural sociologists: Dr. H. C. Hoffsomer, Alabama Polytechnic Institute; Dr. T. C. McCormick, Arkansas State Collège of Agriculture; Professor B. F. Coen, Colorado State Agricultural College; Dr. George H. von Tungeln, Iowa State College; Dr. Randall C. Hill, Kansas State College of Agriculture; Dr. W. D. Nicholls, College of Agriculture, University of Kentucky; Dr. L. H. DeVault, Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Maryland; Dr. C. C. Zimmerman, Emerson Hall, Harvard University; Dr. W. A. Anderson, Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University; Dr. C. Horace Hamilton, Department of Agricultural Economics, North Carolina State College of A. and E.; Dr. C. E. Lively, Ohio State University; Dr. O. D. Duncan, Oklahoma A. and M. College; Dr. Lowry Nelson, Brigham Young University; Dr. John H. Kolb, College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin; Dr. George Peterson, University of California; Dr. T. Lynn Smith, University of Louisiana; Paul H. Landis, South Dakota State College; L. P. Gabbard, Department of Farm and Land Economics, Agriculture Experimental College Station.

In the Division of Subsistence Homesteads, Department of the Interior, of which Professor M. L. Wilson is the head, Dr. Bruce L. Melvin and Dr. Carl C. Taylor are special assistants engaged in research and field work and in setting up corporations in local communities, the branches of corporations through which the financing of homesteads is being conducted.

Professor Nels Anderson, of Seth Low Junior College of Columbia University, is field assistant to the chief engineer of the Civil Works Administration, making a study of labor relations. Professor Frank A. Ross, of Columbia University, is working on the problem of co-ordinating the various federal research projects. Aubrey W. Williams, formerly secretary of the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, is an assistant administrator to the head of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

Dr. E. L. Kirkpatrick served for several months with the Federal Emergency Relief Administration as rural-relief adviser to Mr. Hopkins. He also helped to distribute surplus commodities in rural drought and storm areas.

*University of California.*—The second summer seminar on Far Eastern studies will be held at the University of California, June 25–August 3, 1934. Address: "Allen C. Blaisdell, Director of International House, Berkeley, Calif."

*University of Chicago.*—Professor Louis Wirth will teach at the University of Michigan during the summer session of 1934.

Prentice-Hall announces the establishment of a "Sociological Series" under the editorship of Professor Herbert Blumer.

*Connecticut State College.*—Dr. Victor A. Rapport is serving as a member of the state Milk Control Board.

Drs. Nathan L. Whetten and Victor A. Rapport have ready for press the report of the survey of recreational facilities of the state of Connecticut.

Dr. J. L. Hypes expects soon to have ready for press the report on the investigation of rural-population mobility in Connecticut.

*University of Denver.*—Dr. Ben M. Cherrington, director of the Foundation for the Advancement of the Social Sciences at the University of Denver, was recently appointed by the governor a member of the Colorado State Relief Committee.

*Indiana University.*—Professor R. Clyde White has been appointed executive secretary and technical adviser to the Indiana State Committee on Governmental Economy—a committee which was authorized by the Indiana General Assembly in 1933 for the purpose of studying local and state government with a view to both economy and efficiency. It has five major projects: (1) transportation, (2) public education, (3) public wel-

fare system, (4) administration of justice, and (5) financial and statistical organization.

*University of Kansas.*—Harper Brothers announce the publication of *Social Disorganization*, by Dr. Mabel A. Elliott, assistant professor of sociology, and Francis E. Merrill, of the faculty of the Central Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago.\*

*Miami University.*—Professor Read Bain will teach during the summer at Brigham Young University, offering courses on economic change and on selected institutional changes. Dr. W. F. Cottrell will assist members of the government, history, and economics departments in offering a course on citizenship during the Miami summer session.

*University of Michigan.*—Mr. Clark Tibbitts, a member of the sociology faculty, has been granted leave of absence for the second semester to act as statistician in the Federal Emergency Relief Administration.

Professor Robert E. Park, formerly of the University of Chicago, has spent several weeks in Ann Arbor working in collaboration with Professor R. D. McKenzie on a proposed book in human ecology.

Mr. Kenneth H. McGill has been teaching classes in introductory sociology since September and during the second semester has been conducting Mr. Tibbitts' course in American sociology.

*University of Minnesota.*—As the *Journal* goes to press the newspapers announce the death of Professor Ross L. Finney at the age of fifty-nine. Professor Finney was one of the pioneers in educational sociology and effectively promoted this interest for the past few years. Among his published works are: *Elementary Sociology: A Constructive Textbook for High Schools and Junior Colleges*; *General Social Science*; and *A Sociological Philosophy of Education*.

*University of North Carolina.*—Longmans, Green and Company announce the publication of a new and revised edition of *Introduction to Sociology*, by Ernest R. Groves, research professor of sociology.

*Oberlin College.*—Mr. S. Clayton Newman, instructor in the department of sociology, has been elected secretary-treasurer of the Ohio Sociological Society, to fill out the unexpired term of Professor A. A. Johnston, of Wooster, who has resigned on account of illness.

*University of Pittsburgh.*—Professor Roswell H. Johnson, co-author of *Applied Eugenics*, has, during leave of absence, finished the work for the Ph.D. in sociology and received the degree at the February graduation. Henceforth Dr. Johnson will teach in the field of sociology.

*University of Southern California.*—Announcement is made by President R. B. von KleinSmid of the University of Southern California that, beginning September 1, 1934, the school of social welfare will offer a graduate program leading to the degree of Master of Science in social work. The curriculum will conform to the standards established by the American Association of Schools of Social Work, and will qualify the student to receive the provisional certificate in social work authorized by the Association, in addition to the advanced college degree.

Dr. and Mrs. Martin H. Neumeyer left March 19 for a trip around the world while on sabbatical leave from the University. They plan to study leisure time activities and problems in various parts of the world, particularly in Japan, China, Italy, and Switzerland.

Dr. Emory S. Bogardus is the author of a book on *Sociology*, published in April by the Macmillan Company.

Dr. Erle F. Young is the author of a book entitled, *Modern Social Case Work* in a revised fifth edition.

Dr. George B. Mangold is conducting a class in "Fundamentals of Social Work" in San Diego.

Dr. Clarence March Case is giving a series of radio addresses on "Traffic Ways."

*Stanford University.*—Mr. Cheng Wang, candidate for the Doctor's degree in sociology at Stanford, has returned to China to continue research on his thesis and take up teaching duties as professor of sociology at the National Central University, Nanking.

Mr. Yin Lin Chang, candidate for the degree of Ph.D. in the division of sociology at Stanford University, has been appointed professor of social psychology at Tsing Hua University, Peiping, and left at the close of the past quarter to take up his duties there.

Mr. Philip E. Keller, formerly of New York University and Columbia, has been appointed acting assistant professor at Stanford University. He is giving courses in principles of sociology and criminology. Mr. Keller has held research positions at the University of Pittsburgh and at Brown University.

Professor R. D. McKenzie of the University of Michigan, will give

courses in human ecology and in population theory at Stanford University during the summer quarter of 1934.

Professor Walter G. Beach has retired from regular activities as professor of sociology. During the present year, however, he is engaged as lecturer in sociology, giving courses in social theory, primarily for graduate students.

Professor Beach and Dr. E. E. Walker (formerly of Stanford) have just completed an elementary text on *Social Problems* to be published by the Stanford Press.

Professor Beach read a paper on "Some Aspects of Race Segregation in California," at the meeting of the Pacific Sociological Society at Los Angeles in January.

*University of Tennessee.*—Social investigations have been conducted in the department of agricultural economics of the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Tennessee since 1919-20. In 1932 the official title of the department became "Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology."

*University of Texas.*—During the spring semester and the summer session, Professor Joseph K. Johnson will be teaching sociology in the place of Adjunct Professor Carl M. Rosenquist, who has been granted a six months' leave of absence to work with one of the departments of the federal government at Washington, D.C.

*Washington University.*—Ray Long and Richard R. Smith announce the publication of *The Fields and Methods of Sociology*, edited by Professor L. L. Bernard. The book is based in the main on the fifteen "Scope and Method" sessions which formed the core of the 1932 program of the American Sociological Society, which met in Cincinnati, Ohio, December 28-31, 1932.

*Wheaton College.*—Dr. Doris A. Lorden has been appointed instructor in sociology for the year 1934-35.

*Yale University.*—The Macmillan Company announces the publication of *Our Primitive Contemporaries*, by George Peter Murdock, assistant professor of sociology.

## BOOK REVIEWS

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*L. T. Hobhouse: His Life and Work.* By J. A. HOBSON and MORRIS GINSBERG. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1931. Pp. 360. 12s. 6d.

American sociology and philosophy are the poorer because they have failed in adequate recognition of the work of Professor L. T. Hobhouse, who died in the summer of 1928 after having filled for several years the chair of sociology in the London School of Economics. It is hoped that this summary of his life and work by his friend, Mr. J. A. Hobson, and by his successor, Professor Morris Ginsberg, will place before American students, who have not the time for a systematic study of his voluminous writings, Hobhouse's leading sociological and philosophical ideas. The first third of the book is devoted to a biography by Mr. Hobson, the second third to a summary of Hobhouse's philosophical and sociological system by Professor Ginsberg, and the last third to selected articles and essays by Professor Hobhouse which have not hitherto been published in book form.

It is indeed strange that the sociological system of this British realist and combater of nineteenth-century idealism has not attracted more attention from American sociologists. Probably this has been due to the prevalence among them of narrower methods than those which Professor Hobhouse used. It is perhaps too much to claim, as Professor Ginsberg does, that Hobhouse "laid the foundations of a scientific sociology." American behaviorists would perhaps be the first to dispute this, though, curiously enough, Hobhouse shortly before his death described his method as "behavioristic." But it must be conceded, it seems to the reviewer, that Hobhouse was one of the founders of scientific sociology. With Comte, Hobhouse considers the emergence of sociology as a positive science as a crucial point in the history of man; and with Comte he would agree that in proportion as the treatment of a subject becomes scientific, its method ceases to be purely dialectical and becomes matter of fact. But like Lester F. Ward, Hobhouse makes the appearance and increasing dominance of mind the central fact of evolution, especially of social evolution. While he repudiated subjectivist interpretations, he held that the function of mind was decisive in the process of social evolution, through the emergence of rational and directed control over social conditions.



Sociological method should therefore combine a critical analysis of conceptions with a comprehensive grasp of historical facts. Therefore Hobhouse insists throughout his work on the close relation between science and philosophy. In a word, Hobhouse's method was "synthetic," and it would be difficult to point to a more perfect example of the use of this method in recent sociological literature.

Professor Ginsberg points out that Hobhouse's social philosophy is fundamentally ethical. He was not one of those who believed that ethics and science were in different worlds. Unlike his colleague, Professor Westermarck, Hobhouse affirms that judgments of value may be "true" or "false" just as much as judgments of fact. A social ethics is, therefore, an indispensable part of a social philosophy and naturally grows out of a system of sociological beliefs.

In politics Professor Hobhouse will be remembered as perhaps the leading founder in the English-speaking world of the new liberalism. While repudiating *laissez faire*, and leaning strongly toward universal governmental regulation of economic processes, he held that the individual has a right to scope for initiative, choice of occupation, and opportunities for improving his own economic position by bigger and better social service. Yet he also held that the community ought to be the owner of land and of all capital accumulated by past generations, while the individual should have as his own property only his personal accumulations. Here is an economic liberalism radical enough, perhaps, to satisfy even some socialists.

"Viewed as a whole," says Professor Ginsberg, "Hobhouse's work must assuredly come to be recognized as the most comprehensive and successful attempt made in recent times, whether in England or abroad, towards a systematic sociology."

With this judgment the writer of this review cordially agrees; and he would add that Professor Ginsberg has done for Hobhouse's system much the same that Professor Lévy-Bruhl did for Comte's. It is to be hoped that this book will find a large reading among American students of sociology.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Studies in Sociology.* By MORRIS GINSBERG. London: Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1932. Pp. ix+207. 6s.

American sociologists will do well to take note of this new book by Professor Hobhouse's successor as the "Martin White professor of sociology"

in the University of London. The book is a collection of essays which go to the heart of some of the most vital problems in sociology. The essays are divided into three groups: the first concerned with the scope and method of sociology, the second with an analysis of the theory of evolution as applied to society, and the third with the claims of eugenics. The book will enable American students to become quite fully acquainted with Professor Ginsberg's point of view.

Professor Ginsberg is a close follower of Professor Hobhouse. While he distinguishes between sociology and social philosophy, he regards sociology, nevertheless, as a synthetic science, utilizing the results of all other sciences to interpret social organization and social evolution. A favorite definition of sociology with Professor Ginsberg is "the study of the relations and interactions between men living in societies, including the conditions and the consequences of such interactions." Professor Ginsberg would therefore reinstate the problem of human social evolution as the central problem of sociology. In his essay on "The Concept of Evolution in Sociology," which is perhaps the most important essay in the collection, he shows that the conception of stages of growth is still necessary and useful in sociology, and that it may be defended against the objections that have been raised against it, although the recognition of this truth does not commit sociologists to any particular theory of social evolution.

If one may judge the future from this book, it would seem that the University of London will continue to have in its chair of sociology a thinker who will attract the attention of his sociological colleagues throughout the world.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

DUKE UNIVERSITY

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*Outlines of Sociology.* By EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS. New York: Century Co., 1933. Rev. ed. Pp. xiv+455. \$3.50.

This new edition of Professor Ross's *Outlines of Sociology*, revised to conform to the previously published revision of his *Principles*, has neither omissions nor additions that should be surprising to anyone who is familiar with either the *Outlines* or the *Principles* in the first editions, except that the author has included his *Tests and Challenges*, first printed separately for students of the *Principles*, as exercises at the ends of the chapters. In a brief prefatory note to teachers, he explains how he uses these tests and challenges in his own classes, and adds the suggestive remark, "Experience has taught me to demand of the student *less reading and more thinking.*"

This book has the general outline of the earlier versions, namely, short opening divisions on population and social forces, followed by a lengthy treatment of social processes, and ending with somewhat briefer discussions of social products and sociological principles. In this edition, however, the long series of chapters on "social processes" is broken up into seven parts, with appropriate subheadings, so that the forty-seven chapters of the whole volume are grouped under eleven logical headings, as Part I, Part II, etc.

Though framed on a logical, well-ordered plan, *Outlines of Sociology*, like all of Professor Ross's later writings, is concerned mainly with the empirical aspect and the practical problems of human society, rather than with the formulation of a closely reasoned system of fundamental ideas. It can scarcely fail to provoke thought and discussion.

FLOYD N. HOUSE

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

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*Social Problems and Social Planning.* By CECIL CLARE NORTH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. x+409. \$3.50.

This textbook proposes as its general purpose an introduction to more detailed special courses frequently given in departments of sociology, through a principle of integration by which essential sociological theory is applied to special social problems. In a sense, therefore, it is an orientation text which starts with the concept of culture and then works through the various methods of cultural change and adaptation, arriving finally at the concept of social reconstruction through definite social planning. In the course of the discussion the author is able to offer little hope from any program of eugenics, concludes that we shall need some legal control over sex until we can develop a better moral control than we now have, conceives that it is possible to rebuild the moral system of modern Western society and adapt it to current needs. To this end he would call into partnership socialized religion. The author's point of view and the epitome of his message on the reconstruction of Western culture may be summarized in a single paragraph in his own words, namely:

... It is a society in which the adaptation of the culture of the group is achieved through deliberate effort and comprehensive social planning; a society that is becoming increasingly rational in the utilization of its resources for meeting the needs of the population; in which the competitive aspects of life are subordinated to the cooperative; a free society; a democratic society. And any society which succeeds in attaining these objectives must also be a highly intelligent society and one animated by an attitude of devotion to the common welfare.

The book is clearly written, carries a series of questions, exercises, and references for supplementary reading and class reports in approved textbook form. Its chief limitations lie in the necessary brevity with which certain world-shaking movements are discussed. Fascism, for example, is not given any real consideration and a few paragraphs suffice for the great Russian experiment. Events of 1933 in Europe, in the Far East, and in the United States make some of the chapters sound very thin at this date—especially so the sections on social planning.

ARTHUR J. TODD

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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*Current Social Problems.* By JOHN M. GILLETTE and JAMES M. REINHARDT. New York: American Book Co., 1933. Pp. x+819.

For some time there has been a growing sense of the need to integrate the study of social problems with general sociology. But as yet no textbook has adequately met this need, and *Current Social Problems* is no exception. It is none the less a serviceable book, for it contains a considerable body of useful data, descriptive and statistical in character and recent in origin. If it is disappointing, this is not because of inferiority, but because it fails to outdistance its predecessors.

The viewpoint of the authors is indicated in their definition of a social problem as a situation for which no one in particular is responsible, which threatens harm to many, and whose control or removal demands the efforts of many persons. In accordance with this definition the authors deal with "problems more immediately related to geographic and economic conditions" (natural resources, population, distribution of wealth and income), "problems arising out of psychophysical conditions" (physical and mental health), "problems connected with race and nativity," "problems centered in the domestic institution," and "problems of general social control" (public opinion, crime, alcohol, war).

STUART A. QUEEN

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

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*Immigration and Assimilation.* By HANNIBAL GERALD DUNCAN. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1933. Pp. xi+890. \$3.80.

This book is divided into distinct parts: the first, giving the statistical and political data for many areas of the earth, and the second, the life-histories of first, second, and third generations of people who originated in some of the areas.

There are more facts in the first five hundred pages than can be found in any other book in the language outside of encyclopedias. Practically every page is packed with population and other figures, dates, and proper names. There are twenty maps, historical and contemporary data, and a description of political, religious, and social conditions. In some places accuracy is impossible, and in others errors may have crept in, but there has been care in the collection of material and there is little dogmatism.

One may wonder why some geographical sections are included and others omitted. There is a section on Siam and one on Afghanistan, but none on the Philippines, none on the Jews as a unit though there are sixty-two references to them in the Index. The spread is so great that there is no pretense of being exhaustive, though there is intensiveness, and there is no attempt to relate specific background with particular immigrants. Any student who masters this first part will have an awesome amount of information.

The last part of the book, approximately three hundred pages, is given, first, to a good chapter on "Immigration to the United States," followed by life-histories. The inclusion of the second and third generations is unique in books on this problem, and there are many interesting cases. The samples are somewhat abnormal because they are almost entirely those of college students.

One may criticize the book because it is so long, but it well might have been twice as long. Wherever there is sociological interpretation it is sound. The plan was, perhaps, too large to encompass fully, but it is an interesting undertaking.

HERBERT A. MILLER

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

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*The Dynamics of Therapy in a Controlled Relationship.* By JESSIE TAFT. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. ix+296. \$2.50.

Dr. Taft presents as the body of this book a detailed record of prolonged contacts with two children of seven, a boy and a girl. The contacts with little Helen lasted for about two months, and totaled sixteen hours. John had thirty-one hours of contact with the psychologist extending over a period of about three months. The accounts are not verbatim but include those words and acts which are regarded as significant and reports of family and social conditions supplied by the case-workers so as to give the reader a very clear picture of what preceded and followed.

If the account were a mere record of the attempts to discover the cause of the difficulty in each case and to redirect the personality, it would differ little from many such accounts already available. But in her introductory

material and her theoretical conclusions as well as in the occasional comments on specific incidents Dr. Taft reveals a fundamental difference in conception and method. With profound reverence for the soul of the child, she insists that it would be presumptuous for anyone to try to form or cure or re-educate another. In the long interviews there was opportunity for accusation, for preaching, and for exhortation. The reader not only finds none, but the author shows at length why there was none.

In a personal relationship it is assumed that a dialectic of resistance, transfer, and freedom must and should take place. The control of the relationship seems to be the awareness of this succession and, perhaps, to speed up a little the succession of hatred, love, and emancipation. But the author does not give a formula and would regard the attempt to do so with disfavor. In the last chapter this is made very clear.

Therapy is a process in which a person who has been unable to go on living without more fear or guilt than he is willing or able to bear, somehow gains courage to live again, to face life positively instead of negatively. How is this possible? If one thinks of an exact scientific answer to the question, I must confess that I do not know; that, at bottom, therapy of this kind is a mystery, a magic, something one may know beyond doubt through repeated experiences but which in the last analysis is only observed and interpreted after the fact; never comprehended in itself or controlled any more than the life process is controlled.

A disciple of Rank, Dr. Taft does her work with none of the amateurish muddling that marks the efforts of those who have not thought things through. The book ought to help greatly many kinds of people, not least those who know not how little they know. But, while the secrets of motivation are not yet known, the tough-minded will not rest content with any mystery or magic. Once most of nature was a mystery and the only resort was to a magic. Therapy may be in that stage now. It is the ambitious program of many devoted scholars to penetrate its secrets and to make of it a problem that will have an exact scientific answer. The generosity of Dr. Taft in thus sharing with us the experiences of her clinic which we may imitate and even reinterpret should earn for her the gratitude of all lovers of truth.

ELLSWORTH FARIS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*Criminology*. By ROBERT H. GAULT. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1932. Pp. ix+461. \$3.48.

"This book," says the author in his Preface, "differs from others in the general field in that it is, from first to last, an attempt at a psychological

approach." His concept of the "psychological approach" is, however, a very broad one, and involves the "social contact" as more than coequal with heredity in shaping the behavior which is called criminal. Some two-thirds of the book is devoted to "The Criminal Personality" and the other third to "The Struggle against Crime," but in the latter the same emphasis obtains.

For the student,\* as for the general reader, this work is valuable, summarizing as it does in an informed and cautious manner much of the data involved in this approach. The author has no psychological axe to grind and emphasizes the range of the causational forces involved in no uncertain terms. While the book does not have the sweep of view of some more discursively planned works, its contribution is a very genuine one.

C. E. GEHLKE

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

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*Major Units in the Social Studies.* Edited by CHARLES W. WADDELL, CORINNE A. SEEDS, and NATALIE WHITE. New York: John Day Co., 1932. Pp. 390.

*Social Studies Instruction.* By ROBERT E. SWINDLER. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1933. Pp. xiii + 348. \$2.50.

These two volumes are both designed for the use of teachers—*Major Units in the Social Studies* for elementary-school teachers and *Social Studies Instruction* for secondary-school teachers. They indicate the increasing extent to which, in recent years, the social studies have come to occupy a prominent, if not predominant, place in both elementary and secondary education. They both also reflect the shift in emphasis that has taken place in the objectives of education among the so-called "progressive" educators. Instead of a predominant emphasis on the impartation of factual information and skills, progressive education now seeks primarily to develop social attitudes and efficiency in social relations.

*Major Units in the Social Studies* devotes eighteen pages to an exposition of the theory of progressive education. The activity school is characterized as follows:

It is of necessity dominated by informality. It encourages natural activity, initiative, self-direction, self-control, self-judgment, self-mastery. It attempts to establish, in the school room and on the playground, normal social relations, and encourages helpful intercourse and communication very much as these relationships function in real life. It aims at normal, friendly, helpful, cooperative relations in natural life-situations.

The social studies are regarded as those "which include studies of the physical environment of man, the record of man's struggle with this environment, and the study of the changes in materials which man has made during this struggle for adaptation."

The remainder of the volume is devoted to practical suggestions to teachers in carrying out projects in the social studies for elementary pupils.

*Social Studies Instruction* deals with curriculum-making, with the problem of the library and reading material for high schools, and with the unit system of instruction. It is rather heavily loaded with extensive quotations. The author accepts the points of view and objectives which have been set forth by the educational sociologists.

In examining the reading lists suggested for high schools, the reviewer was impressed with the paucity of sociological material recommended. The question may be raised whether the extreme emphasis on purely historical and civics material in high schools may not be due in part, at least, to the lack of properly prepared sociological materials. Are sociologists overlooking an important field in failing to provide adequate materials for secondary education?

CECIL C. NORTH

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

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*Christian Science als Sociaal Verschijnsel.* By DR. L. P. VAN DER LOES.  
Delft, Netherlands: W. D. Meinema, 1933. Pp. 319.

The author has provided another object for worry by the Committee on Publication. He gives an interesting survey of the doctrine and the historic development of the sect, followed by some considerations as to geographical and social distribution of its membership. Membership seems to be primarily related to "healing" experience. It is concentrated in "health" regions and definitely upper middle class. The poor find it hard to believe that poverty is, after all, nothing but a dream. Interesting data are presented on the distribution and growth of the movement in England and the rest of the world, based largely on rather scattered church publications. There is a tendency to use rather doubtful source material in the interpretation of the general background in this country. Upton Sinclair and Sinclair Lewis (*Elmer Gantry!*), Duhamel's journalism, and books of the *Washington-Merry-Go-Round* and *Revelry* type are hardly trustworthy sources for anything but "atmosphere." There are also more reliable sources for church-membership statistics than articles in the *Nation* (N.Y.). On the whole, however, this is a very creditable performance in a difficult field.

HARRY D. GIDEONSE

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO



*Biology and Human Welfare.* By JAMES EDWARD PEABODY and ARTHUR ELLSWORTH HUNT. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. x+658. \$1.60.

This is a new edition of a work first published in 1924. Designed for high-school students, it is simply but clearly written, comprehensive in scope, and profusely illustrated.

F. H. HANKINS

SMITH COLLEGE

*A Bibliography of Aesthetics and of the Philosophy of the Fine Arts from 1900 to 1932.* Compiled and edited by WILLIAM A. HAMMOND. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1933. Pp. viii+183.

A valuable bibliography, designed especially for the philosopher of art.

VAN METER AMES

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

*Documentary Source Book in American Government and Politics.* By CORTEZ A. M. EWING and ROYDEN J. DANGERFIELD. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931. Pp. xx+823. \$3.48.

This is an excellent collection of excerpts from constitutions, law cases, public speeches, newspaper editorials, and other original sources bearing upon American government.

HAROLD F. GOSNELL

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*Optimistic America.* By GUY V. PRICE. Kansas City: Western Baptist Publishing Co., 1933. Pp. 297. \$2.25.

James Truslow Adams once remarked upon the importance of the "American dream" in guiding our historical development. He meant by this the prevalent hope of a "better time coming" which has characterized Americans from the time of settlement to the end of the nineteenth century. Dr. Price gives us a documented historical and sociological picture of the basis and operation of this American dream. We have now awakened from the dream and are endeavoring to cure our devastating national headache, provoked by the other side of the picture, best presented in Kirby Page's recent book, *Individualism and Socialism*.

HARRY ELMER BARNES

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

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